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GEORG BÜHLER.

MANUAL OF INDIAN BUDDHISM

BY

H. KERN.

STRASSBURG
VERLAG VON KARL J. TRÜBNER
1896



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GRUNDRISS DER INDO-ARISCHEN PHILOLOGIE UND ALTERTUMSKUNDE

(ENCYCLOPEDIA OF INDO-ARYAN RESEARCH)

HERAUSGEGEBEN VON G. BUHLER

III BAND, 8 HEFT

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

I. THE SACRED BOOKS

The sacred lore of the Buddhists is based on the canonical books, a complete collection of which is technically called *Tripiṭaka* (*Tipitaka*), i. e. the three Baskets 1. *Vinaya*, *Sūtra* (*Sutta*), and *Abhidharma* (*Abhidhamma*). Of all the collections going by that name the Pāli *Tripiṭaka*, representing the version acknowledged by the orthodox Theravādas or Vibhajyavādins of Ceylon, is the only one which forms a well arranged whole and is sufficiently known to admit of a critical disquisition into the relative age of its component parts, at least to a certain extent.

The *Vinaya*, as its very name implies, treats chiefly of Discipline and all questions connected with it.¹ About the development of the *Vinaya* we find most valuable hints in Prof. OLDENBERG'S Introduction to the *Mahāvagga*.² His conclusions are summarized in the following list of successive events in the ancient literary history of Buddhism: 1. The genesis of the *Pāṭimokkha*. The earliest beginnings of the Dhamma literature. 2. The formation of the commentary on the *Pāṭimokkha*, which is included in the *Vibhanga*. 3. The *Vibhanga* is compiled, the *Mahāvagga* and the *Cullavagga* are composed, origin of the main substance of the *Suttanta* literature. 4. Council at Vesālī (± 383 B. C.). 5. Origin of the legend of the Council at Rājagaha, composition of the closing chapter of the *Vinaya*. 6. Schisms in the Buddhist community, origin of the *Abhidhamma*. 7. Council at Pāṭaliputta, the *Kathāvattu*.

All these propositions are supported by sound reasoning and seem plausible enough, though a more thorough knowledge of the remains of the *old* Northern versions than we now possess may necessitate us to modify our views in some particulars.³

The *Sutta-Piṭaka*, much more extensive and diversified than the *Vinaya*, may be said, in a loose way, to treat of various subjects more or less related to Doctrine. Its fivefold division into *Nikāyas*⁴ already occurs in *Cullavagga*.

¹ The P. *Vinaya* books have been completely edited by Prof. H. OLDENBERG (1879—83) under the titles of *Mahāvagga*, *Cullavagga*, *Sutta Vibhanga*, and *Parivāra*.

² See there p. XV ff., cp. *Introd.* to *SBE* XIII by Prof. RHYS DAVIDS and OLDENBERG, and *Introd.* to *Dhammapada*, *SBE* X, p. XXIX ff. by Prof. MAX MÜLLER.

³ Cp. the criticisms on OLDENBERG'S views by MINAYEF *Recherches* I, 61—67.

⁴ To wit: 1. *Dīgha Nikāya*, 2. *Majjhima Nikāya*, 3. *Samvutta N*, 4. *Anguttara N*. These 4 *Nikāyas* are also called *Āgamas*, which is the usual term with the N. Buddhists.

5. *Khudda-N*, comprising *Khuddaka Pāṭha*, *Dhammapada*, *Udāna*, *Jīvuttaka*, *Sutta Nipāta*, *Indo-aryische Philologie* III 8

a conclusion moreover strengthened by its character "The compilers of the Abhidhamma books seem to have taken up such subjects, only as are discussed at full length in the Nikāyas, dealing with them more or less in a purely scholastic and technical manner with some variation in regard to the order and arrangement of the numerous details connected with the Buddhist creed"¹ The edited texts, in fact, consist of a bare enumeration of classifications and definitions, which justifies the use of the term *mātrkā* as synonymous with *abhidharma* in Northern writings² "The period between the Council of Vesālī and that of Pāṭaliputta", to use the words of OLDENBERG³ "saw the origin of the schism, and was also the time of the development of the Abhidhamma literature"

The canonical books of the various sects among the Northern Buddhists — to use a more convenient than wholly accurate term — in so far as they have their counterparts in the Pāli canon and do not belong to the *new* canon of the Mahāyānists⁴, are but partially known On comparing, first of all, the Chinese Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas, a short analysis of which was communicated to OLDENBERG by BEAL, with the extracts of the Tibetan Vinaya of the Mahāsarvāstivādins⁴, the editor of the MV draws the following conclusions⁵ "All of the different versions of the Vinaya are based upon *one* foundation, the arrangement of the material is the same in all, a large portion of the stories interwoven in the text correspond in all⁶ It has been pointed out above, that of the elements which constitute the Vibhanga the narrative portions were added last, the addition of these stories was made at an earlier period than that in which the differences of the various schools arose Even the story of the first two Councils — which is clearly the part of the Pāli Vinaya last composed, is also met with at the exactly corresponding place in the Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas, and of the Mahāsarvāstivādins"

Here it should be observed that both the Mahīśāsakas and Mahāsarvāstivādins are offshoots of the orthodox Sthaviravāda, and may be said to form subdivisions of the orthodox community It is therefore very natural that their Vinaya bears so close a resemblance to that of the Theras But from this it does not follow that *all* versions of the Vinaya, those of the different versions of the schismatic Mahāsāṅghikas included, show the same degree of affinity Apart from the biased testimony of their opponents that the Mahāsāṅghikas had altered the original redaction and made changes in the Vinaya and the 5 Nikāyas⁸, we can adduce a fact that one sect at least of the Mahāsāṅghika party made a peculiar application of the term Vinaya The Mahāvastu, a book belonging to the school of the Lokottaravādins, a sub-

paññatti (or °paññatti), Kathāvatthu, Yamaka, and Paṭṭhāna. — A compendium of the whole is the Abhidhammattha-Sangaha, ed by Prof RHYS DAVIDS JPTS of 1884

¹ Words of MORRIS in Intr to his edition of the Puggala paññatti, p VIII

² See e g Divy p 18, 133, BURNOUR Intr p 48, 317 Cp ROCKHILL, L of B p 160

³ Op c p XXXIV

⁴ The term Tripiṭaka, when applied to a collection including Mahāyānist books, is properly a misnomer In the Vyutpatti § 65 the Tripiṭaka and its subdivisions are duly separated from the Mahāyānist canonical works, the titles of which are given The Tripiṭaka is not repudiated by the Mahāyānists, it is recognized by them, and stands to their own canon somewhat in the same relation as the Old Testament to the New

⁵ According to CSOMA KÖRÖSI in As Rev XX, especially p 45 ff Cp JASB I, 1—6, and HUTT, Die Tibetische Version der Nāhsargikaprāyāścittukadharmās (1891).

⁶ Intr p XLVII.

⁷ Cp JASB I, 1—6 The division in the Tibetan Dvka is Vinayavastu, Prātimoksa sūtra, Vinayavibhanga, Vinayaśūdraka, and Vinayottaragrantha Cp Vyutp § 65

⁸ Dipav V, 32 ff Bodhivamsa, p 96

division of the Mahāsāṅghikas, shows after the introduction the following title¹ "Āryamahāsāṅghikānām Lokottaravādinām Madhyadesikānām pāthena Vinayapitakasya Mahāvastu ādi" As the badly arranged contents of this book are merely made up of chapters from the legendary life of the Bodhisattva, of Jātakas, of the praehistory of the Sākya race, etc., without any admixture of matter connected with Discipline, it is strange to find it classed as a Vinaya text² For though the Pāli Vinaya contains narrative parts to a considerable extent, no book of it is wholly made up of subjects which otherwise have a place in the Sutta-Piṭaka³ According to Chinese authorities the Mahāvastu is the book that for the Mahāsāṅghikas represents the Abhiṣekramaṇa-Sūtra of the Dharmaguptas, and the Lalita-Vistara of the Sarvāstivādins⁴ This statement is wanting in precision, for it is only in those portions which deal with the history of the Bodhisattva up to his reaching Buddhahood that it may be said to answer to the compositions just named. Taken as a whole, the Mahāvastu is a work the contents of which are substantially the same as found in the collections of the orthodox sects, but which in its arrangement follows a totally different method, or rather no method at all. It differs in another respect also from the orthodox texts by its invocation of a plurality of Buddhas⁵ It can hardly be doubted that such an invocation, much resembling that of the Vaipulya-Sūtras marks a period posterior to the reign of Asoka. A comparison of the language and composition of the Mhv with other documents leaves the impression that the time of its redaction is intermediate between the date of the P canon and that of the Vaipulyas

In the absence of other texts our notions regarding the arrangement of the Mahāsāṅghika Scripture must necessarily be very limited. According to Huen Tshang⁶ the old canon of the Mahāsāṅghikas was fivefold, divided into Sūtra-, Vinaya-, Abhidharma-, Samyukta-, and Dhāraṇi- (or Vidyādhara-)Piṭaka. We have no means of estimating the value of this statement.

BURNOLF somewhere⁷ remarks that it is strange not to meet with books of Vinaya in the Nepalese collection of HODGSON, and he tries to explain the fact by assuming that in reality the Vinaya is represented by the Avadānas. To this view may be objected that in the Tibetan Do⁸ the Avadānas constitute a part of the Sūtra-Piṭaka, as well as in the Pāli canon⁹ The absence of Vinaya texts in HODGSON'S collection — barring the Mahāvastu — may be readily accounted for by the condition of Buddhism in Nepāl, where monasticism has long ago ceased to be an institution.

The Sūtra-Piṭaka of the North is preserved in a Chinese trans-

¹ Mahāvastu (ed. STAVERT), I, p. 2.

² A part of the book is downright a Sūtra, viz. the Avalokita-S., which, however, is designated as a Parivāra or Appendix in II, p. 397.

³ The same applies to the Tibetan Vinaya (Dulva), though its character approaches that of the Mhv, because it is not only devoted to recording the rules of the Order, but contains a great number of Jātakas, Avakāras, Sūtras and Udānas. See ROCKHILL, I, of B, p. XI.

⁴ STAVERT, Pref. Mh. I, p. III, BRILL, Romantic Legend p. V, WASSERHOF, B, p. 114.

⁵ The invocation is: *Om namah Śrī Mahābuddhā, śrītānūcatapratyutpannēbhyā sarva bhagvate*. The theory of the plurality of coeternal Buddhas in the different quarters is common to all Mahāyāna schools, according to KATHAV. I, A, XXI, 6, and therefore old of the canon belonging to the creed.

⁶ H. I, p. 18, III, p. 37.

⁷ In I, p. 38.

⁸ STAVERT, I, p. 384.

⁹ But the Chinese Buddhist preachers did not include the Avadānas in the canon. (P. 384) As there is no question of the Avadānas being incorporated in the canon, see I, p. 384. See also p. 384, in Trans. 10th Congr. of Or. I, 165.

lation¹ Many titles of Sūtras are also known to us from the Tibetan version, some of them in more or less complete translation, e g the important Mahāparinirvāṇa-Sūtra² The subject matter of those old Sūtras has passed, more or less modified, into the Vaipulya-Sūtras, forming part of the new or Mahāyānist canon, about which anon

The Abhidharma books corresponding to those in the P canon, seven in number, have survived in a Chinese translation It is not a little curious that in more than one source most of them are ascribed to well known disciples of the Buddha³ In how far the original version has been meddled with is a question which can only be solved by those who are able to compare the Chinese translation with the Pālī Abhidharma texts Works like the Abhidharma-Kosa by Vasubandhu do not belong to the canonical literature

The Tripiṭaka properly so called, has for a large part yielded the material for the Vaipulya-Sūtras, which if not all of them were composed by the Mahāyānists have at least been adopted by them and incorporated in their new canon Outwardly the Vaipulya-Sūtras are distinguished from the older Sūtras by a different manner of composition and by the change of idiom We regularly find in them sections in a redaction in prose, followed by one in verse, the latter being in substance only a repetition of the former⁴ or, may be, in some cases the source of the narrative in prose The idiom of the prosaic part is a kind of Sanskrit, that of the verses, Gāthās, is a veiled Prākṛit somewhat clumsily sanskritised as much as the exigencies of the metre permitted In our opinion, there cannot be the slightest doubt that the prose is a regular translation from a Prākṛit text into Sanskrit, a comparatively easy task, whereas a rendering of the Gāthās into Sanskrit would be impossible without entirely remodelling most verses Why and when has the original idiom been replaced by Sanskrit? At present we can do no more but surmise that the translation was resolved upon in order to meet the wants of the times It has been the common fate of all Prākṛits that they became obsolete, whilst the study and practice of Sanskrit have been kept up all over India as the common language of science, literature and refinement, and as a bond between Aryans and Dravidas At what time did Sanskrit reconquer its ascendancy? Of course gradually, but we are not in a position to fix the limits of the period with anything like certainty We would, however, suggest that the necessity of refounding the Scripture made itself felt shortly before or after the Council in the reign of Kanishka.

Some Vaipulyas are, materially, much like the old Sūtras Whole passages e g of the Lalita-Vistara recur almost word for word in the Pālī Scriptures In the majority of cases works of the same class show more significant peculiarities In general it may be said that the stock of tradition, common

¹ The whole divided into 4 Āgamas Dīrgha, Mādhyama, Ekottarika-, and Samyuktāgama. WASSILIEF, B p 115 Whether the Ksudrāgama, mentioned by Tāranātha p 42 may be held to be the counterpart of the Khudda-Nikāya, must be left undecided

² ROCKHILL op c p 123 ff

³ WASSILIEF, B p 107, BURNOUF, Intr p 447, Tāranātha p 296, Vyutp § 65 The titles and reputed authors are 1 Jñāna prasthāna, by Kātyāyana (al Kātyāyaniputra), cp the Pālī title Paṭṭhāna. 2 Dharmaskandha, by Śāriputra, cp Dhamma-sangani. 3 Dhātu kāva, by Pūrṇa (al Vasumitra), cp Dhātu kāthā. 4 Prajñaptiśāstra, by Maudgalyāyana (with WASSILIEF Amṛtaśāstra by Goṣṭha), cp Puggala-paññatti, 5 Vijnāna-kāva, by Devakṣema (al Devasarman). 6 Saṅgīti parjāṇa, by Śāriputra (al Kauṣṭhila). 7 Prakaraṇa pāda, by Vasumitra. The three last books may or may not be the counterparts of the P Vibhanga, Kathāvatthu, and Yamaka Some of these works are also mentioned by Huen Tshang, Voy I, p 102, 109, 123 II, 119, 201, 291

⁴ BURNOUF, Intr p 103

to all Buddhists increased among the non-orthodox sects by much additional matter. New mythological beings such as the Bodhisattvas Avalokiteśvara and Mañjuśrī make their appearance, a host of Buddhas of the past, present and future are honoured and invoked along with Sākyamuni whose image however far from being effaced, is clad in brilliant majesty more than ever¹.

All Vajrapāya texts we know of are qualified as Mahāyāna Sūtras, and constitute the new or Mahāyānist canon². Since we learn from Chinese authorities that the Lalita-Vistara, a decided Mahāyāna Sūtra properly belongs to the Sarvāstivādins, we must infer that the Mahāyānists did not scruple to adopt such works of the Hīnayāna sects as fitted in with their system though we cannot help believing that the text must have undergone modifications.

The chronological questions connected with the rise of Mahāyānism are too vast to admit of an incidental treatment. Here it will suffice to note that the Mahāyāna Sūtra Sukhāvatī-Vvūha or Amitāyus-Sūtra is stated to have been translated into Chinese for the first time AD 148—170³. If this notice be exact, and equally the tradition that Nāgārjuna, born about the time of the Council under Kaniska, was the founder of Mahāyānism, the Sūtra forenamed must have been one of the very first writings composed or adopted by the new sect. In reality Nāgārjuna may have been one of the most talented and influential leaders of the movement rather than its originator.

To the Mahāyānists is ascribed the introduction of Dhāraṇīs into the sacred texts. How to reconcile this with the statement by Huen Tshang that the Mahāsāṅghikas possessed a Dhāraṇī-Pitaka from the very beginning of their sect? Unless we repudiate the truthfulness of the report altogether, we are driven to the conclusion that the Mahāyānists did not invent the Dhāraṇīs but only appropriated them as an integral part of their system. There are indeed several indications of a certain connection between the tendencies of the Mahāsāṅghikas and the Mahāyānists, as in the course of this work we shall have occasion to point out. Hence it would be rash to deny the relative trustworthiness of the tradition current in India when the Chinese traveller visited the country. The circumstance that the Dhāraṇīs are visibly accretions of such texts as the Saddharma-Pundarika, is no decisive argument against the prior separate existence of the formulas.

Of later growth than the Dhāraṇīs which are exoteric in their character, are the esoteric Tantras. As to the whole Tantric literature, the full development whereof coincides with the decline of Buddhism, we must content ourselves with referring the reader to the authorities on the subject⁴.

Besides the division of the whole of Holy Scripture into 3 Pitakas, the

¹ LUTZ, *op. cit.* p. 116 ff.

² The titles of the Mahāyāna Sūtras, few of which have been edited, are given in VVU, 805, cp. WASSILIEF, *l. c.* p. 155 ff. Some titles also occur in the list of the 9 Dharmas — an official phrase for Dharmaśāstras — with HODGKIN, *Ess.* p. 13, 49. Cp. The Sacred Buddhist Literature of Nepal, KÄRSTEN, *Mit.* 1882, the Catalogue of the Holograph Collection in COLLIER and LUTZ, *in* IKAN of 1875, do. of the Cambridge Collection by LUTZ.

³ SUTTA-VANNA, ed. MAX MÜLLER and BUDDH. NAGHO, pag. IV. — Dates of translation of other books are given in LUTZ, *Buddhist Tripitaka*, and BUDDH. NAGHO, *Catalogue of the Chinese translation of the B. Tripitaka*, 305 ff.

⁴ For a more accurate account see LUTZ, *op. cit.* p. 541 ff., WASSILIEF, *l. c.* p. 142, 177 ff.

⁵ See SUTTA, *l. c.* p. 116 ff.

⁶ LUTZ, *op. cit.* p. 522—574. WASSILIEF, *l. c.* p. 144, 184 ff., WADDELL, *Buddhism of Tibet*, p. 129 ff. Several Tantric works are contained in the Catalogue of the Holograph Collection in COLLIER and LUTZ, *op. cit.* p. 305 ff. and the list in LUTZ, *op. cit.* p. 356. On the influence of Sāva Tantras on the Buddhist Tantrism of Nepal, see LUTZ, *l. c.* p. 20.

Buddhists of the South and the North have in common another into Angas according to the subject matter. The Pāli denomination of these Angas, 9 in number are 1 Sutta, a connected narrative or a collection of verses on one subject, 2 Geyya, mixed prose and verse, 3 Veyyākaraṇa, exposition it contains, according to the system, the whole Abhidhamma-Piṭaka further the Suttas which have no Gāthās, and all the other words of Buddha not included in the remaining eight Angas, 4 Gāthā, unmixed verses, 5 Udāna, enthusiastic utterances in prose or verse, in the system "Suttas connected with stanzas composed under the inspiration of joy", 6 Itivuttaka, the collection of 101 Suttas beginning with the words "Thus has Buddha spoken", 7 Jātaka, stories of one of the former births of Buddha¹, 8 Abbhutadhamma discourses relating to wonderful and mysterious conditions, 9 Vedalla a kind of Suttas said to be questions put after feeling a pleasant emotion and contentment, whatever that may mean².

With the N. Buddhists we sometimes find the same number³, but more common is the enumeration of 12 kinds of Dharmaprayaścānas 1 Sūtra, 2 Geyya, 3 Vyākaraṇa, 4 Gāthā 5 Udāna, 6 Nidāna, 7 Avadāna 8 Ityukta (wrongly Itivuttaka), 9 Jātaka, 10 Vaipulya, 11 Abbhutadharma, 12 Upadesa⁴. This enumeration agrees with that of the Sinhalese if we deduct Nidāna, Avadāna, and Upadesa. Nidānas and Avadānas are sufficiently represented in the Pāli canon but they are not accounted as separate Angas. As to the Vaipulyas, these 'treat of several sorts of Dharma and Artha, that is of the several means of acquiring the goods of this world (Artha) and of the world to come (Dharma)'. They may safely be identified with the Pāli Vedalla, having nothing but the name in common with the Vaipulya-Sūtras. The Upadesa, professedly treating of esoteric doctrines, is equivalent to Tantra, which lies outside the pale of original Buddhism.

In connection with the preceding survey we cannot omit touching upon the question of the original language of the holy books. Although "the Pāli version" — to use the words of Prof. OLDENBERG — "has hitherto shown itself to be the most original if not *the* original version", as regards the contents, "it may with certainty be maintained that in *one* respect, in reference to the *dialect*, it differs from the original text", the fundamental constituent parts of which were undoubtedly fixed in the idiom of Magadha. It is now universally admitted that Pāli does *not* represent that idiom⁵, whatever may be the different views about the original home of Pāli. The most plausible view is that Pāli originated in Kalinga-Andhra⁶. From an important passage

¹ To the valuable essay "On the Buddhist Jātakas" by S. d'OLDENBERG, already alluded to above p. 2, in IRAS of 1893, p. 301 ff (originally Russian in Zapiski of 1892) is added a copious bibliographical list of works regarding the Jātakas, other Russian papers of the same author on the Bhadrakalpāvadāna and the Jātaka māla are titled "Buddhist Legends" (1894), and "Remarks on Buddhist Art" (1895).

² The definitions are found in Sumangala Vilāsinī, vol. I, pag. 23 ff. Cp. CHILDERS s. vv. and the authors there quoted.

³ Saddh. Pund. Ch. II, vs. 45, cp. vs. 44.

⁴ WASSILIEF, B. p. 109, Dharmasūtra LXXII, and note, HODGSON, Ess. p. 14, BURNOUR, Intr. 51 ff. — The class of Ityukta is apparently represented by the Sūtra of the 42 Sections (in BEAL's Cat. p. 188), which has traits in common with the Itivuttaka, though the material agreement, as between Sect. 9 and Sutta 100, is slight.

⁵ Rightly observed already by LASSEN, Indische Alterthumskunde vol. II, p. 488.

⁶ The question is fully discussed by OLDENBERG, op. cit. p. XLVII ff. But cp. WESTERGAARD, Ueber den ältesten Zeitraum der Indischen Geschichte, p. 87, and E. KUHN, Beiträge zur Pāli-Grammatik, p. 7, where another hypothesis is propounded. — The significant fact that the word *palikāśra*, common to Magadhi and Pāli, is replaced by *paṭikāśra* in the Girnar version of Aśoka Edict V, goes far to prove that the home of Pāli is not to be sought for in W. India.

in *Cula-Vagga* (V. 33) where we read that Buddha allows every one to study the Buddha-word in his own dialect. We may conclude that at the time when the sacred texts were spread over India they were certainly not handed over to the different parts of India in the Māgadhi language but in the vernacular dialect peculiar to the several districts. This being taken for granted, nothing prevents us from supposing that the Northern versions which have come to us in Sanskrit and in a certain Sanskritised idiom although ultimately going back to a Māgadhi original have passed through an intermediate stage in other words, that Māgadhi was replaced by other local dialects. Now the course of events in India and its literary development have been such that we can readily understand how at a certain period it was thought advisable to Sanskritise the sacred texts as much as possible. The more scientifically Sanskrit was learnt by the Buddhists, the more correct their writings. Some renowned names in mediaeval Sanskrit literature belong to authors of the Buddhist persuasion. The steadily growing ascendancy of Sanskrit is visible even in Ceylon for not to speak of later inscriptions, we learn from Fa Hien that the Vinaya-Pitaka and other texts of the Mahāyāna-sāhas in the island were in Sanskrit.

2. LITERATURE SUBSIDIARY TO THE CANON WORKS ON LEGENDARY AND SEMI-HISTORICAL SUBJECTS RELIGIOUS POETRY

The sacred books have naturally given rise to a subsidiary literature in the form of commentaries, manuals, treatises, and the like.² The mass of that literature, both in the S. and the N., is so immense that only a very few of the most noteworthy productions can here be treated of.

Beginning with the South we first have the *Atthakathā*, a body of commentaries on the various parts of the *Tiṭṭhaka*. According to Sinhalese tradition the *Atthakathā* was fixed at the first Convocation, and rehearsed at the two following Councils: it was introduced by Mahendra along with the Pāli texts into Ceylon, and translated by the same into Sinhalese: it was not put to writing before the reign of Aṇḍaya Vattagāmanī, in the last century B. C., and retranslated into Pāli by Buddhaghosa about A. D. 400. It is easy to see that those statements are a mixture of dogmatical fiction and truth. This much is well ascertained that there existed a collection of commentaries of semi-sected character under the name of *Atthakathā* in the time when the *Dīpaṃśa* was written about A. D. 300, but we are in the dark about the real age of its various portions, and we possess as yet no sufficient data for making out what has been added or changed after A. D. 300, either of Buddhaghosa or of others. The story in the *Mahāvamsa* according to which Buddhaghosa translated the whole *Atthakathā* is in conflict with some

1. The above is based on the assumption that the only

The MSS of Pāli sacred books and their commentaries in the India Office have been described in *Orientalia* in JPTS of 1882 pp 59-53; a list of the MSS in the Bibliothèque Nationale has been published by L. FEER 10 pp 32-37, and the same number of the *Journal* has as a FRANKFURTER, and by L. DE ZOUHA, 1881, pp 1-10; see also FRANKFURTER'S *Handbuch*, XV-XVIII, of translations XIX. The French commentaries on *Chandogya*, *Aitareya*, *Saṁhitā*, S. p. 36, M. AYER

1. I, _____, do hereby certify that _____

well established facts. The commentary on the Thera- and Therīgāthā titled *Paramattha-Dīpanī*, and some other commentaries have been composed by *Dhammapāla* of *Kāñcīpura*, and not by *Buddhaghosa*¹. Further it should be noted that *Buddhaghosa* in his *Samanta-Pāsādikā* quotes the *Dīpavamsa* by name. The *Atthakathā* being professedly older than the chronicle, his work cannot have been a simple translation, or he must have found those quotations in his original and in that case some portions of the *Atthakathā* must have been posterior to the chronicle.

Notwithstanding some doubts about the absolute correctness of the Sinhalese accounts, we may hold that the principal Pāli commentaries on canonical works are due to *Buddhaghosa*, as well as the *Visuddhimagga*², a kind of cyclopaedia of the Buddhist creed. Another work that has been characterized as "a short encyclopaedia of the Buddhist theology and cosmology" is the *Sārasaṅgaha*³. The commentary on the treatise *Kathāvatthu*⁴ contains much about the tenets of the various sects.

A dogmatical treatise in the form of dialogues between king *Milinda*⁵ and the Buddhist sage *Nāgasena* is the work titled *Milinda-Paṭha*⁶. Date and source of the work are uncertain, but for various reasons it must be posterior to the beginning of our era, and have been composed in the North of India, though all quotations from Scripture in it are from the Pāli canon⁷.

Writings belonging to the class of compendiums, and containing repetitions of passages from more ancient works with more or less apocryphal additions, are the *Anāgatavamsa* or History of future Buddhas⁸, the *Saddhamma-Saṅgaha*, and the *Mahābodhivamsa*, which is a translation of a Sinhalese original⁹. The same applies to the *Rasavāhinī*, a collection of 103 tales¹⁰, the *Dāṭhāvamsa*¹¹ and the *Chakesadhātuvamsa*¹². A much used compendium of ecclesiastical acts is titled *Kammavācā*¹³, whereas the chronicles *Dīpavamsa*, *Mahāvamsa* and *Sāsana-vamsa* deserve a special notice on account of their being so highly important for the ecclesiastical history of Ceylon. Interesting notices on Pāli books and authors are contained in the *Gandhāvamsa*¹⁴.

Among the poems in the praise of Buddha we have the *Pajjamadhu*¹⁵. Another religious poem of didactic character is the *Saddhammopāyana*¹⁶.

¹ Cp ED MÜLLER in the Pref. to his edition of the *Param. Dip.* and the authorities quoted above.

² Cp HARDY, M of B., p. 512. For an abstract of contents by CARPENTER, see JPTS for 1890, and cp A. C. WARREN in Trans. 9th Congr. of Or. I, 392.

³ See K. E. NEUMANN „Des Sārasaṅghaḥo erstes Kapitel“, text and translation (Leipzig 1891), p. 6.

⁴ *Kathāvatthupakaraṇatthakathā*, ed. by MINAYEF JPTS of 1889.

⁵ The Skt. form of *Milinda*, identified with *Menandros*, is *Milindra* in Kṣemendra's *Avadāna Kalpalatā* No. 57, vs. 15. Not unlikely *Minara* in *Tāranātha*, p. 23, is another form of the same name.

⁶ Ed. by TRECKNER (1880), transl. by Prof. RHYS DAVIDS in SBE XXXV (1890).

⁷ The question has been discussed by Prof. D. RHYS DAVIDS in the preface to his translation. On two Chinese translations of the work see E. SPECHT and S. LEVI in Trans. 9th Congr. of Or. I, 518—529.

⁸ Ed. by MINAYEF in JPTS of 1886.

⁹ See STRONG in his ed. p. VIII, where the question of authorship and date is dealt with.

¹⁰ The four first tales ed. by SPIEGEL in his *Anecdota Palica* (1845), others by KONOW in DMG of 1889, p. 297 ff., the 7th Chapter by PAULINI (1894).

¹¹ Ed. by RHYS DAVIDS in JPTS of 1884, by M. C. SWAMY (Lond. 1874).

¹² Ed. by MINAYEF in JPTS of 1885.

¹³ See CHILDERS s. v.

¹⁴ Ed. by MINAYEF in JPTS of 1886. Cp the same, *Recherches* I. 257.

¹⁵ Ed. by GOONERATNE in JPTS of 1887.

¹⁶ Ed. by MORRIS in JPTS of 1887.

the Sāṅkhyas proclaim that the soul is essentially different from matter, by which it is clogged, though it remains essentially undefiled and eternal.¹ The Buddhists, denying the existence of any thing like a soul, necessarily reject the notion of *paramātran* and see the highest truth in the formula of the 1. *Ārya-satyāni*.

The Indian view of life, in the mystical and transcendental systems of the Vedānta and Buddhism, as well as in the rationalistic Sāṅkhya, Yoga, Nyāya, is not seldom considered pessimistic. That qualification is true in a restricted sense, the Indians being pessimists only half-way. Just as they have no objection to the most tragic situations in their dramas, provided the final be a happy one, so they admit of all sorts of dreariness in human life, but at the same time they believe that it is possible, and that by a comparatively easy method, to get rid of the nuisance called existence and rebirth: they have only to follow some one of the infallible teachers of the path to salvation, of whom there was no lack in India. There, too, the rule holds good that the supply is proportionate to the demand.

PART II. LIFE OF BUDDHA

The history of Buddha, such as may be extracted from the canonical writings, is so marvellous that all who are standing outside the pale of Buddhism reject, more or less, its truthfulness. A few of the unbelievers have gone to such lengths as to see in that history the remoulding of an ancient myth. Others, less radical, are of opinion that it will be possible by stripping the tale of its marvellous and mythical elements to find out the historic nucleus. Those are apt to believe that by the aid of their critical manipulations they can produce an image which is extremely like the original. Without denying the worth of critical disquisitions or entering into the merits of the different reconstructions of the traditional history, we must limit ourselves in the following pages to a condensed account of the principal feats in the career of the Supreme Being whom all Buddhists acknowledge and revere as their Lord, Bhagavat, as the fountainhead of all Dharmas, who, according to his own words throughout myriads of ages had prepared himself out of charity before becoming a Buddha, to free sentient beings from the misery of existence. The history of *that* Buddha may be said to be true in an ideal sense. To a certain extent we agree with SPENCE HADY,² that 'we must be content with the legend in its received version', though we would not subscribe to what he adds 'with all the accumulations it has gathered in successive ages' because these supposed accumulations are found in the sacred books which are not separated from the epoch of Nirvāṇa by ages.

¹ For more particulars, here out of place, concerning the speculations of the Upanishads and Vedānta, we refer the reader to the exposition in BARTH'S *Religions of India*, 2^d ed., p. 100—S. G. QUENSTER, *Die Religion des Veda und der Buddhismus*, in *Indische Archäologie* of Nov. 1895; JACOB, *Der Ursprung des Buddhismus*, GG¹ 1896.

² Barth's account is a corrected logarithm of the Buddha in the canonical texts. The latter is, however, generally considered as such, as in reality the narrative of

The published specimens of religious poetry bear the stamp of having been productions in the palmy days of mediaeval Sanskrit literature. The *Bodhicaryāvatāra* by Śāntideva, a poem breathing a truly pious spirit, ranks foremost¹. Almost as elegant in form, but wholly wanting in originality and warmth of feeling is the poem *Sisya-lekha* by the grammarian Candrakīrti². Hymns to Śākyasiṃha, Avalokiteśvara etc. are known only from Catalogues³ or occasional quotations.

3 TIME OF RISE OF BUDDHISM INDIAN THOUGHT AND IDEALS AT THAT TIME

Owing to the unsettled state of Indian chronology we cannot with full certainty fix the absolute date of the Nirvāṇa⁴, yet we may confidently assert that the rise of Buddhism nearly coincides with the close of the Upaniṣad period. From the very tenets of Buddhism it is evident that the theories of the Vedānta had reached their full development, albeit not in the scholastic form of the *Brahma-Sūtras*. The practices of the Yoga, which though dogmatically no integral part of the Vedānta are not repudiated or disapproved by the Vedāntins, were scarcely less developed in the days of Buddha than later in the time of Patañjali, the author of the manual titled *Yoga-sūtra*. The doctrine of Karman, of metempsychosis, was already so deeply rooted in the popular conscience that Buddhism has retained it notwithstanding its standing in the most glaring conflict with Buddhist psychology, which denies the existence of soul altogether⁵.

The spiritual aspirations and the views of human life as entertained by the more serious Indians at the rise of Buddhism are, at first sight, extremely gloomy. What strikes us most, is the emphatically pronounced dread — *samvṛga*, as the Buddhists like to call it — of the miseries of life, of old age and death, a dread intensified by the belief in perpetual rebirth, and consequently of repeated misery. All sects — barring the Sadducees of the epoch — agree in the persuasion that life is a burden, an unmix'd evil. All accordingly strive to get liberated from worldly existence, from rebirth, from Samsāra. All are convinced that there are means to escape rebirth, that there is a path of salvation, that path consisting in conquering innate ignorance and in attaining the highest truth. But what is the highest truth? Here the views go asunder. Some, as the Vedāntins, affirm that truth in the highest sense⁶ of the word is the essential unity of the highest soul, *paramātman*, with the individual soul, *pratyagātman* or *jīvātman*. Others, as

¹ Ed. by MINAYEF in *Zapiski* vol. XV, p. 156—225, partial French transl. by L. DE LA VALLÉE POUSSIN in *Museon* of 1892. Noteworthy as an indication of the influence of contemporary Hinduistic sentiments is such a passage as we read section 2, vs. 8: *parigrahaṃ me kurutāgrasatvāḥ, suśmāsu dāsatvam upāsmi bhaktiyā*. Cp. A. BARTH in *Bull. Rel. de l'Inde*, (p. 20 separ. copy).

² Ed. by MINAYEF, with a valuable introduction, in *Zapiski* IV, p. 29—52, Tibetan text added by IWANOWSKI.

³ E.g. No. 29—32 in the *Catal.* of COWELL and EGGELING. Cp. BIRNBOUF, *Intr.* p. 557. Specimens of prayers also published by MINAYEF *Zapiski* II, 130, to Avalokiteśvara, 233, to Buddha, the latter ascribed to the king Harṣadeva.

⁴ The knotty questions connected with Buddhist chronology will be dealt with hereafter, in Part V.

⁵ *Digha-N* I, p. 34, *Pugg-P* p. 38. More about this in the sequel.

⁶ We avoid using the term "real truth", because reality for the majority of Indian sects is the reverse of truth in the highest sense, of *sat*, सत्, it being only a relative, practical truth, and passing into a more illusionary appearance, *māyā*.

her arriving at the Lumbini Grove, she felt a desire to enter the wood. Seeing a holy Sāl tree, she stretched out her hand to take hold of a branch, which bent down of its own accord, and whilst she held it, she was delivered, in standing position and holding the branch. The child was received by the 4 Guardian gods of the quarters, and from their hands by men, but he, descending from their hands, stood erect on the ground, looked in all directions, and, after making 7 steps, exclaimed triumphantly "I am the foremost of the world" — The child was brought to Kapilavastu.

On the same day with the Bodhisattva were born Yasodharā, the mother of Rāhula¹, Channa (Chanda), Kāludāyī (Kālodāyī, Udāyī), the horse Kanthaka (Kanthaka), and Ānanda², at the same time sprung into existence the Bodhi tree, and the four treasure vases

Northern sources name as born at the same time 4 kings who will play a part in the history of the Buddha, viz Bimbisāra, Prasenajit, Pradyota, and Udayana³

The birth of the Bodhisattva caused great rejoicing in the heaven of the Thirty-three gods. The Seer Kāla (al. Asita) Devala, who happened to witness those rejoicings, and on enquiry was informed of the happy event, went to Suddhodana and expressed the wish to see the child. The infant was brought, but instead of worshiping Devala, put its feet on the matted hair of the Seer, who, rising from his seat bowed respectfully to the child, and the king, following his example, prostrated himself before his son. The Sage prophetically foresaw that the child one day would become a Buddha, but that himself would die before that time. This afflicted him and he wept. In order to secure to one of his relatives the blessing he was deprived of, he went to his nephew, Nālaka⁴, and recommended him to become a recluse, as in the house of Suddhodana a son was born, who in 35 years would become a Buddha. Nālaka, accordingly, took up the life of a Śramaṇa, heard afterwards the Master, entered the Order, reached Arhatship, and finally extinction⁵

Five days after his birth the Bodhisattva received the name of Siddhattha (Siddhārtha⁶). Among the Brahmins attending the ceremony there were eight renowned soothsayers, who were asked by the King to prognosticate the future destiny of his son. Seven of them were not able to make out whether the Prince would become a universal Monarch or a Buddha. Alone the eighth young Kondaṇṇa (Kaundinya) predicted that the latter alternative would infallibly prove true. This Kondaṇṇa was the very same who afterwards as one belonging to the group of Five (Pañcavaggiya, in N sources Bhadravaggiya) took the vows.

The King, anxious to prevent his son from forsaking the world, asked what would move the Prince to flee from worldly enjoyments. The answer was four ominous sights: an old man, a sick man, a corpse, and a monk.

¹ Also called Bimbā, Bodhi-V p 20, and in N sources Gopā, e. g. SCHIEFNER Tib. L. p. 236-245, Lal. V. 155, cp. 270, where she is called Yaśovatrī.

² The cousin of the Buddha and the son of Amṛtodana, according to N sources, e. g. SCHIEFNER, Tib. L. p. 264, ROCKHILL, L. of B. p. 13. Curiously BIGANDET I, 36 (2), in some statement, against the common S tradition, see RHYSDAVIDS, B. p. 52. In M. II, 157, Ānanda's mother is Mṛgi (virtually identical with Kisa Gotamī).

³ SCHIEFNER Tib. L. p. 235, ROCKHILL, L. of B. p. 16.

⁴ So, too, Mh. II, p. 33, but Naradatta Lal. V. 135, 127.

⁵ Cf. Nāgārjuna S. 1. S. Niv. p. 128.

⁶ In N sources also Parārthasiddha. The new-born child is brought to the temple, the goddess — or a brother account has it — the goddess Abhayā — bows down at the feet. I. V. chap. VIII, Mh. II, 26, ROCKHILL, op. c. p. 17.

I DESCENT FROM HEAVEN CONCEPTION BIRTH CHILDHOOD
ADOLESCENCE¹

After having exercised the 30 Pāramitās in anterior births the Bodhisattva destined to become an omniscient Buddha was born in the Tuṣita heaven. At the request of the deities, urging him to release mankind, he made, before giving his assent, 5 necessary examinations: 1 of the time of his appearance, 2 of the continent, 3 of the country, 4 of the race and family, 5 of the mother who should bear him, and the time when her life should be at an end². He saw that the proper time had arrived, that all Buddhas are born in Jambudvīpa, in the country Madhyadesa³, that the Buddhas are born either in the caste of Brahmans or of Kṣātrīyas, the latter being predominant, he resolved upon becoming the son of Suddhodana, the king of the Sākya clan in Kapilavastu, finally he saw that the queen Mahā-Māyā should be his mother, and that she would die seven days after his birth⁴. He left Nandanavana, Indra's paradise, and was conceived in the womb of Mahā-Māyā.

It was then, on the last day of the Āśādhā festival⁵ in Kapilavastu that Māyā had a dream, in which she saw how the Bodhisattva who in the shape of a white elephant was wandering on the Gold Mountain approached her from the North, and entered — so it seemed — her womb. So the Bodhisattva was conceived⁶.

When the Queen the next morning told her dream to the King, he summoned Brahmans, interpreters of dreams, who declared that she had conceived a son destined to become either a universal Monarch or a Buddha.

During the time of gestation, four celestials guarded the Bodhisattva and his mother, to shield them from all harm. When the time of her confinement drew near, Māyā wished to visit her parents at Devadaha (Devahrada). On

the heroic career of the Bodhisattva from his descent on earth to the time when, after valiantly doing battle and vanquishing the Fiend, he proclaims his Kingdom of Dharma. It has the character of an epic on the Bodhisattva. The same applies to the Chinese texts enumerated by BEAL, SBE. XIX, p. XVI ff. The genuine portion of Aśvaghosa's Buddha carita is nearly coextensive with Lal V. The complete biographies, known to us, are compilations of canonical accounts, but as compositions comparatively modern, thus the originally Pāli source of Bigandet's Life or legend of Gaudama, the Sinhalese Pūjavalī, the Tibetan Life by Ratnadharmarāja, transl. in extract by SCHIEFNER, ROCKHILL's Life of the Buddha, derived from the Bṛāh-Hgyur and Bstan Hgyur, the Bhadrakalpavādāna.

¹ The following narrative is mainly based upon Intr. Jāt I, p. 47 ff (transl. by RHYS DAVIDS, 1880, by CHALMERS 1895). For comparison's sake references are given to Lal V, Mhv I, 142 ff and 197 ff; II, 1 ff. HARDY, M of B p. 140 ff. BIGANDET I, p. 20 ff. ROCKHILL, L, of B p. 14 ff and other sources of information.

² It is the Buddha himself who is the authority for his abode in, and descent from the Tuṣita heaven, Ang N II, p. 130, and, according to CHALMERS, also Acchariyabbhūta S No 123 of Majjh N (JRAS of 1894, p. 386).

³ The Buddhist Madhyadesa, for the boundaries of which see MV V, 13, 12, lies to the east of Madhyadeśa properly so called. It is, in reality, the Prāgdeśa. It is geographically impossible that in any period of Indian history Eastern Hindustān was looked upon as the central region of the Aryan Indians.

⁴ The reason why she must die, is stated Jāt I, p. 52. cp BIGANDET I, p. 27, and Mhv I, 199 = II, 3. A different reason adduced Lal V 112. A third account, the mythical base whereof is but slightly veiled, is found Buddhac II, vs 18.

⁵ Lal V p. 63 the conception takes place at fullmoon day of Vāśākha, the moon standing in Pūṣya (Tīṣṭa), Mhv gives the same asterism, omitting the name of the month.

⁶ The conception is represented in the Bharhut sculpture Pl. XXXIII, inscribed *Bhagavato oṣanti*. Cp MINAUF Recherches I, 146.

hearing the answer, turned back in agitation. The King multiplied the means of enjoyments for his son, and again doubled the guards

Sometime after the Bodhisattva when driving to the gardens, met with a corpse. The answer, given by his charioteer moved him more than ever. Quickly he returned to the palace, and the King redoubled his precautions.

On a fourth occasion the Bodhisattva on his drive to the gardens saw, by the instrumentality of the gods, a monk. The decent deportment of the person made a deep impression on his mind, and when he heard that the man was an ascetic, he forthwith felt a strong inclination to renounce the world.¹ Now he drove on to the gardens, and there spent the day. After taking a bath he seated himself on the resting stone to be clothed.

At that moment Sakra felt that his throne became hot, a certain foreboding of danger to his dominion. Conceiving that the Bodhisattva at midnight of that very day would leave the palace and carry out the Great Renunciation, he ordered Visvakarman to go to the gardens, and adorn Siddhārtha with heavenly attire.

Visvakarman obeyed the order, came into the presence of the Prince, and disposed in a divine manner the folds of the latter's hardress. Thus arrayed in all his splendour, the Bodhisattva ascended his chariot. Just at that time he received the message that Yasodharā had been delivered of a son², on hearing which he said "Rāhula has been born, a bond has come into being." Hence the name of Rāhula was given to the child by order of Siddhodana.

When the Prince was entering the town with great magnificence, a young lady, Kīsā Gotamī³, was contemplating from the upper storey of her palace the entrance of the Bodhisattva, and exclaimed

Happy, indeed, is the mother,
Happy, indeed, is the father,
Happy, indeed, is the wife,
Who possesses such a husband!

On hearing those words, the Bodhisattva became meditative, and as his mind was already estranged from evil passions, he perceived that real happiness can only be gained by quenching the fire of love, hatred and delusion. "She has given me a good lesson", quoth he, "I will search for the peace of Nirvāṇa⁴, and this very day leave my family and renounce the world." Then detaching from his neck a collar of great value, he sent it to Kīsā Gotamī as a token of gratitude.

¹ JAL I, p. 59 adds the remark "The preachers of the Dīgha-N say that he saw all the 4 signs on the same day." This has nothing to do, as ROCKHILL op. c. p. 22 supposes, with the Prince riding on horseback to the fields and seeing some poor ploughing labourers: this scene falls between the third and the fourth ominous sight in Buddhac. V, in ROCKHILL'S source afterwards.

² In MIV II, 159, and Tib. I, p. 240 (cp. Bhadrak. II) it is not the birth, but the conception which took place in the night of the Prince's flight. No date is given in Buddhac. II, vs. 46, where Rāhula is marked by the epithet *Rākurāpatnavaktra*. Cp. the fact that in Tib. I, p. 245 Rāhula's birth coincides with the defeat of Māra at the time of a lunar eclipse on fullmoon day in Vaiśākha. The same moment gave birth to Ananda, the son of Amittodana. In Bhadrak. IX, Rāhula is born six years after his conception, as in Tib. I.

³ Her story is told Far. Dh. 105 f. Therīg. 213—223. Cp. Dh. p. 118, 289, 387, and N. I. I. 5. In MIV II 157 and Bhadrak. XXXV, she is called *Mrgī*, the mother of a deer, and a couple of Tib. accounts something like *Mrgajā*, with ROCKHILL, I. p. 123, the name *Indra*. Buddhac. V, 24.

⁴ The word *Nirvāṇa* in the stanza, is *nirvāṇa*, and *Nirvāṇa* is synonymous with *Nirvāṇa*. See (H. I. p. 111).

Śuddhodana forthwith took all possible precautions that none of those sights should meet the eye of Siddhārtha.

While the child grew up, surrounded by a brilliant retinue, under the special care of his aunt and stepmother, Prajāpatī (the Matron) Gāutamī, it happened on a certain day that the King went out to the Ploughing festival and the Prince was brought to the field by the nurses, who prepared for him a couch under the shade of a Jambutree. Attracted by the spectacle of the King handing the golden plough, the nurses left the Bodhisattva alone, who, seeing no one by him, rose up, seated himself crosslegged, and exercised the first degree of Meditation. Meanwhile the shadow of the trees had turned, but that of the Jambutree had not changed. As the nurses returning saw both miracles, they informed the King, who came in all haste and prostrated himself before his son, saying "This is my second homage to thee, darling"

There is a tale in the North that the Prince, when he first went to school, perplexed the schoolmaster, Visvāmitra, by his miraculous faculties¹

On reaching the age of 16 years Siddhārtha was married to Yasodharā, the daughter of Suprabuddha², his own cousin

Many feats of prowess were achieved by the Bodhisattva, when a youth. He was an uncomparable archer, had herculean strength, and was an expert in all arts. In all contests he showed himself superior to all other Śākya, among whom Devadatta, and it was then that the seed of jealousy was planted in the proud heart of Devadatta³

2 FOREBODINGS OF THE FUTURE FLIGHT FROM KAPILAVASTU RENUNCIATION OF THE WORLD

Time passed on, and the Bodhisattva lived in luxury and all kinds of enjoyments⁴

On a certain day the Prince ascended his chariot, and drove with his charioteer Channa (Skr Chanda, Chandaka) to the pleasure gardens. The gods, knowing that the time was approaching when he would attain supreme Enlightenment, resolved to show him the 4 ominous sights. One among the gods assumed the form of an old, decrepit man. The Prince asked Channa⁵ "What man is this?" "He is an old man", was the answer, "and every living being is doomed to become like him". With emotion in his mind, the Prince quickly returned home, and Śuddhodana on being informed of the reason of that speedy return, felt his anxiety increase, and doubled the guard surrounding the palace.

On another day the Prince saw, under the same circumstances, a sick man produced by the power of the gods. He put the same question, and on

¹ This undoubtedly apocryphal tale occurs Lal V Chap X, cp SCHIEFNER, Tib L p 236. It is curious that in Mil P p 236 Sabbamitta, a name synonymous with Visvāmitra, is mentioned as a preceptor of the Prince.

² Of Mahānāman in Mhv II, 48, of Dandapāni in Lal V p 179. In S texts Dandapāni is the brother of Suppabuddha, HARDY, M of B p 137. The latter is the father of Māyā, in some N sources, but in Mhv I, 356 Māyā is the daughter of Subhūti. Cp RHs DAVIDS, B p 52.

³ Lal V Chap XII, Mhv II, 74 ff, Tib L p 237, ROCKHILL, L. of B p 21. Cp HARDY, M of B p 153. D is in Pāli texts the brother of Yaśodharā and a son to Suppabuddha, HARDY, M of B p 231. His mother is Godhī, e g CV VII, 3, but in Tib L p 237 Devadatta, wife to Amṛtadana.

⁴ Cp Lal V Chap XIV, Buddhac Chap III, vs 26 ff and V, 16 f.

⁵ The compiler of Intr Jāt I, 59 here refers to the Mahāpadāna.

Again the Prince thought "These fine Benares clothes do not befit a Śramana" At that moment the Mahābrahma angel Ghaṭikāra, who in the days of yore had been the friend of the Bodhisattva, when the latter was Gyotpālā¹, provided him with the right requisites of a Sramana, the 3 robes etc. The Bodhisattva put on his new dress, and bade Channa to go back with the salutations to his parents. The charioteer obeyed, but the horse Kanthaka, unable to bear his grief, died of a broken heart. After his death he was reborn as a deity of the same name in heaven².

3 WANDERING LIFE ASCETISM CONTEST WITH MĀRA TRIUMPH. ATTAINMENT OF BUDDHAHOOD

The Bodhisattva having thus entered upon the life of a recluse spent a week in the mango grove of Anupiya. Thence he travelled in one day to Rājagṛha, the capital of Magadha, where he begged his food. At this sight the inhabitants were struck with wonder, not knowing whether he was a deity, a mortal, or any other being. The King, Seniya (Śrenya, Śrenika) Bimbisāra, observing the Great Man (*Mahāpurusa*) from his palace tower, ordered his servants to go and ascertain the nature of the stranger. The men found the Bodhisattva, who after having got sufficient food had left the city, at the foot of the Pāṇḍava Rock, eating, not without an effort, his coarse meal. The messengers returned, and related all to the King, who quickly went to the place where the Great Man was sitting, and offered him his whole kingdom, but the latter rejected that generous offer, saying that he had abandoned all in the hope of attaining supreme Enlightenment, whereupon Bimbisāra asked the favour that his kingdom should first of all be visited by the Buddha³.

On leaving the King, the Bodhisattva went forward, and in due course came to Ālāra Kālāma and Uddaka, son of Rāma, two renowned teachers of philosophy⁴. He learned from them the successive degrees of ecstatic meditation (*samāpatti*), but soon discovering that it was not the way to Enlightenment, he resolved to apply himself to the Great Effort (*Mahāpadhāna*)⁵. To effect his purpose, he went to Uruvelā (Uruvilvā). Now it came to pass that the Pañcavaggiyas, i. e. the 5 mendicants, Kondañña and the rest, met with him, and resolved to stay with him, persuaded as they were that ere long he would become a Buddha.

After six years of exertion the Bodhisattva resolved to practise the most profound meditation (*dhyāna*) and to perform the most rigid penance. By

figured as placed in the Sudhammā Devasabhā, and called *Bhagavato Cūḍāmahe* Pl XVI of Bharhut. cp. CUNNINGHAM p. 189 of his text.

¹ For the history of the two friends, see Mhv. I, 319 ff. and cp. Mil. P. p. 221 ff. Dh. p. 349. — In Mhv. II, 195, Lal. V. 276, Buddhac. VI, vs. 60, the B. changes his dress with the *Īrīja* of a hunter or a Devaputra who had assumed the shape of a hunter.

² The death and deification of the steed is more amply told in Mhv. II, 189 ff. According to this source and Lal. V. p. 282 K. died after his having returned to Kapilārestu. Cp. also his blissful state in heaven *Vimāna-V* p. 81.

³ A fuller account of this story is found S-Nip. p. 71 and commentary. The previous version Lal. V. 297 ff. is much longer.

⁴ Also the two teachers, see the Buddha's own account, Majjh. N. I, p. 80 ff. Cp. Lal. V. 310 ff. — In Lal. V. 100 the course of events is somewhat different, see Lal. V. 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

⁵ The names of the teachers are Ālāra Kālāma, Uddaka, son of Rāma. See Lal. V. 282 ff. and commentary. The previous version Lal. V. 297 ff. is much longer.

When Siddhārtha, after retiring to his apartments, lay reclined on his couch, a crowd of fair damsels began to sing, play and dance to divert him, but he took no pleasure in the spectacle and fell asleep. The damsels, disappointed, lay down to sleep. A short time after the Prince awoke and, looking around, saw the loathsome appearance of the sleeping women.¹ He felt more and more disgusted, and the desire to accomplish the Great Renunciation (*Abhinīṣkramaṇa*) arose in him with double force. He rose, called his charioteer, and gave order to saddle his horse.²

While Channa was saddling the courser Kanthaka, the Bodhisattva went to the room of Rāhula's mother. He opened the door and saw Yasodharā sleeping, with one of her hands upon the head of the child. Fearing that her awakening would be an obstacle to his going away, he silently left the palace.³ As soon as he came out, he went to his gigantic white steed, bestrode it, and ordered Channa to take hold of its tail.⁴ The city gate was opened by the power of the guardian deity, and so the Bodhisattva escaped.

At that moment Māra the Fiend appeared in the air, with the intention to prevent the Bodhisattva to become a Buddha, by promising him in a week the dignity of a universal Monarch. But the Prince, not aiming at worldly sovereignty, remained deaf to the Tempter, who, baffled in his design, maliciously followed him, as a shadow the body, waiting for an opportunity.⁵

It was on the full moon day of Āṣāḍha⁶ when the Prince left the city. At a certain distance he turned the face, at the spot where would be erected the shrine of "Kanthaka's Return."⁷ His progress through the country went on in great pomp and glory, a host of heavenly beings attending him with lighted torches, and the sky being replete with flowers from Indra's heaven "as with the drops of rain at the beginning of the rains."⁸

After going with such a splendid retinue 30 Yojanas the Prince arrived at the river Anomā.⁹ He sprang with his steed over the river, lighted, and said to Channa "Here take my ornaments, and return with Kanthaka. I am going to become an ascetic."

Thereupon the Bodhisattva thought "These long locks of mine are unbecoming a Sramana." He took his sword, cut off his hair, and flung it together with the crest jewel towards the sky, saying "If I am destined to become a Buddha, let it stand in the air, if not, let it come down on the ground." The tuft of hair with the jewel went up and remained suspended in the sky, where Sakra received it in a golden casket, to place it in the Shrine of the Crest jewel (*Cūlāmani*) in the Heaven of the 33 gods.¹⁰

¹ For a fuller description see Jāt. I, p. 61 and Lal. V, p. 251, with the misogynic effusion p. 252. Cp. Buddhac. V, 43 ff. Mhv. II, 159.

² N. writings insert an episode describing how the Prince as a dutiful son, before departing, asks his father's leave, Lal. V, Chap. XV, Mhv. II, 141, cp. Buddhac. V, vs. 27-38. The episode contains powerful passages, but is hardly appropriate.

³ Intr. Jāt. I, p. 62 adds the notice that according to a Jāt. commentary "Rāhula was at that time seven days old", but rejects that view as not being found in other commentaries. Quite different again several N. traditions, see note above p. 16.

⁴ The horse measured 18 cubits from the neck to the tail.

⁵ Lal. V, p. 257 it is not Māra, but Chandaka who tries to deter the Prince from his design. Cp. Mhv. II, 160, and again 165. Cp. WINDISCH Māra und B. p. 205.

⁶ I.e. the date of his conception.

⁷ *Kanthakanvattana*. This shrine not mentioned Lal. V. 277, but another erected on the spot where Chandaka took leave, (*Chandakanvartana*).

⁸ In Madhyadesa the rains set in about the end of June.

⁹ Slightly different Mhv. II, 164, where the place Anomāya is apparently the same as Anupiya in the country of the Mallas. Cp. Lal. V. p. 277.

¹⁰ The name of the Cūtya in Lal. V. p. 278 is *Cūdāpratigrahaṇa*. The relic

of 14 cubits was formed. Then he uttered the following asseveration "Let my skin my nerves and bones waste away, let my life blood dry up, I will not leave this seat before attaining perfect Enlightenment"¹

It was at that moment that Māra² thinking "Prince Siddhārtha wishes to escape from my dominion", summoned his hosts to do battle. Himself mounted on the elephant Mountain-girdled (Gṛimekhala) led the attack, which was so dreadful that the gods attending the Bodhisattva were seized with terror and fled. The Great Man alone remained undaunted, putting his 'rust in the Pāramitās. Thereupon Māra caused violent winds to blow, followed by a rain of rocks, weapons, glowing ashes, charcoal. All in vain³

Seeing all his attempts baffled, the Fiend approached the Great Man, and summoned him to vacate his seat. "Māra" was the reply, "you have not devoted your life to benefit the world, to attain wisdom. This seat does not belong to you." Enraged at these words, Māra cast his discus weapon at the Great Man, but it became a garland of flowers. Again the host of Māra renewed the attack, but the rocks they hurled down at him, were turned into nosegays. Sure of his triumph, the Bodhisattva exclaimed "The seat belongs to me", and turning to the Fiend, he defied him to adduce a witness for his merits. Māra pointed to his followers, who with a roar testified to their master's liberality. In his turn the Fiend asked "As to you, Siddhārtha, who is witness to your having bestowed alms?" Then the Bodhisattva called up the Earth to be his witness, and she replied with such a roaring voice that the hosts of Māra were discomfited, and the elephant Gṛimekhala fell down on his knees to pay homage to the Great Man. The army of the enemy fled in all directions whereas the gods exultingly shouted "Māra is defeated! The Prince Siddhārtha has prevailed!" The Nāgas and other celestial beings approached the seat of Enlightenment, chanting songs of victory.

The sun was still above the horizon when the Great Man defeated the army of his foe. In the first watch of the night he arrived at the knowledge of his former states of existence (*pūramvāsa*, *pubbenvāsa*), in the second watch he acquired the heavenly eye (*dīṇyacaksu*, *dibbacakkhu*), in the 3d the knowledge of the series of causes and effects⁵.

While he was mentally revolving the 12 causes (Nidānas) in direct order and in reverse order^o, the whole universe shook 12 times to its foundation, and the most extraordinary phaenomena were seen, even as at his birth

¹ Cp the stanza in Lal V p 362

² *Yāro fā mē*, the usual name of the Fiend in P, originally, it appears, synonymous with the *śiśu, an fā mē* in Vedic texts, has with the Buddhists become the incarnation of Evil. His connection with Death is further exemplified by his being identified with *śaccarū* in Therag vs 411. For *fā mē* Vh¹ has *fā mē an*, along with *fā fā ān* (e.g. II, 204, 265) the latter form being used in Lal V. A well-known synonymous term both in S and in N texts is *Namuci*. His identification with *Smara* is founded upon his being the ruler of the highest *Kāmaloka*, hence he is termed *Kāmesvara*, Lal V p 427, *śiśu fā mē fā fā n cakratur itarā caśacarū*, p 375. Cp Buddhac XIII, vs 2. See also W. D. D. *Śara* and B p 184 ff.

3 According to Lal V j 402 Māra, after his first unsuccessful attack, sends his
cousin to tempt him. He repeats his attempt in a later period, in which the P
e's reply, as we shall see below. Other transpositions occur Mhv II, 322 and
the III v 2 f.

- In 1111, the army is defeated at sunrise

The system, as developed MV I, 1, Lal V
C-10, H-10, H-25 and 346, will be expounded in Part III below — P.V. WRT's
C-10, H-10, H-25 and 346, likewise Lal V 447 May II, 345
The system, as developed for Lal V I p. 7S

11, SS 716 ff

carrying his fasting to excess, he became as thin as a skeleton, and at last so weak that one day he fainted and fell down¹. Some gods said "The Sramana Gautama² is dead, others, however, remarked 'Such is the state of Arhats'" And, indeed, not long afterwards he recovered from his swoon³.

As he perceived that mortification was not the way to Enlightenment, he resumed his former diet, which caused the Five friars to loose faith in him. Hence they left him, and went to Rṣipatana (Isipatana) in the Deer-park near Benares.

At that time there lived in Uruvelā a girl named Sujātā, the Chieftain's daughter⁴. On the fullmoon day of Vaisākha she rose early to make an offering to a holy tree and milked the cows. Seeing many miracles, she joyfully sent her servant girl Pūrṇā (Punnā) to clear the place under the holy tree.

Now in the latter part of the previous night the Bodhisattva had seen 5 dreams, by which he got the certainty that in the course of that day he would become Buddha. At daybreak he went in quest of his food and sat down at the foot of the holy tree, lighting up the East with his radiance. Pūrṇā saw him shining, the whole tree goldcoloured by the rays issuing from his body. She ran back to her mistress, who after pouring milk-rice in a golden vessel, went to the tree, and presented the golden vessel to the Great Man. And at that moment disappeared the earthen pot given him by Ghatikāra. He went with the golden vessel to the bank of the river Nairāṇjanā (P. Neraṇjarā), to a place called Well-established (Supatitṭhita), where innumerable Bodhisattvas had bathed on the day of their awaking to Enlightenment. After taking a bath he dressed himself in the garb of an Arhat worn by numberless Buddhas, and, sitting down Eastward, ate all his food, divided into 49 portions, as he would have no other nourishment during the next 7 weeks. Having finished his meal, he flung the golden vessel into the stream with the following asseveration: "If on this day I am to become a Buddha, let this vessel ascend the stream, if not, let it go down." And, lo, it went up to a great distance, when it sunk down to the abode of the Nāgaking Kīla. On striking against the vessels of the three last Buddhas, it produced a sound, by which Kīla became aware of the rise of a new Buddha⁵.

In the evening the Great Man marched toward the tree of Enlightenment. He met on his march with a grasscutter, Svastika (Sothiya), who offered him 8 bundles of grass. He accepted the offering, and, after taking a survey of the quarters, he went to the East, the seat of all Buddhas, facing the West. There he scattered the handful of grass on the ground, where a seat

¹ Buddha himself describes his severe penance and subsequent exhaustion in Majjh. N. I, p. 80, p. 245 ff. Cp. Lal. V. 319 ff., SENART Not. Ep. 3 (statue). — The Dhvina alluded to is termed *appūṇaka* Majjh. N. I c., *āṣṭhānaka* Lal. V. 314, 324, Mhv. II, 125.

² This is the first time the B. is so termed in Jāt. Intr., whereas in Lal. V. he is addressed by that name by Ārāda. As to the origin of the name, see BURNOUT, Intr. p. 155. The Buddha is also known as an Angirasa, the Gautamas being a subdivision of the Angirasas. One of his other appellations is Āditvabandhu, the Sākyas forming a *gotra* of the great tribe of Sun descendants. Cp. S. Nip. p. 73. Ādiccā nāma gottena, Sākkīyā nāma jātuna.

³ Another tradition describes the grief of Māyā on hearing the (false) report of her son's death, Lal. V. 314 ff.

⁴ Her father's title is *śarāṇī*, *senāpat*, and otherwise *gaṇḍāhita* or *grāṇika* (a village head) in Jāt., Mhv., Lal. V., Buddhac. In this last non-cronomical source her name is Nandabālā Mh. 106, but Sudatta Mh. II, 9. The name Bālā also occurs Lal. V. 331. The story of her offering, the subsequent march of the B. and his victory is twice told, Mhv. II, 264 ff. and 200 ff. Cp. Lal. V. Chap. XVIII—XXI. Buddhac. p. 106 ff.

⁵ Cp. Mhv. II, 265, twice repeated with variations, p. 307 and p. 400.

Amid these wonders the Bodhisattva attained Omniscience, and he uttered the joyful song¹ common to all Buddhas

4 THE FIRST SEVEN WEEKS OF BUDDHAHOOD PREACHING OF THE LAW AND CONVERSION OF THE 5 MENDICANT FRIARS OTHER CONVERTS TEMPTATION BY MĀRA THE THREE KĀSYPAS SERMON ON BURNING MEETING WITH BIMBISĀRA CONVERSION OF SĀRIPUTRA AND MAUDGALYĀYANA.

After reaching perfect Enlightenment, the Lord Buddha remained sitting on the same seat, realizing the bliss of Deliverance, and thinking of his generous acts in his previous existence as Visvantara (Vessantara²) Some deities, seeing that he did not leave his seat, felt a doubt whether he had fulfilled his daytask, but the Master, knowing their thoughts, rose into the air, performed a magical³ feat, and thus dispelled their misgivings Thereupon he took his stand a little to the North-East, looking during a week with unblenching eyes at the spot which became the "Shrine of the Unblenching one" Between that spot and his seat he shaped a walk, stretching from East to West, which he spent a week in walking to and fro That walk became known as the "Jewel shrine of the Walk" In the fourth week the gods made to the Northwest a Jewelhouse There he spent a week, going through the whole Abhidharma-Pitaka

After having spent four weeks near the Bodhi tree, he went in the fifth week to the Goatherd's Banyan tree, and sat there scrutinizing the Dharma⁴ It was at that time that Māra, who always followed the Master to discover a flaw sat down overcome with sorrow after his defeat His three daughters, Desire, Pining and Lust⁵, on hearing the reason of his affliction, promised that by their charms they would overcome the Saint. So they approached the Lord and tried to seduce him, but he paid not the slightest attention to them At last he said "Go away! Suchlike endeavours may have success with men who have not subdued the passions, but the Tathāgata has done away with affection, hate and illusion", and he recited two stanzas (Dhp vss 179, 180) Baffled in their attempts the daughters returned to their father

The Lord, after spending there a week, went to Mucalinda⁶ There he

¹ See Intr Jāt I, p 76, the dogmatic interpretation in the comment on Dhp vs 153 f. An explanation of the "train of thought" is found in Prof RHYS DAVIDS, B pp 100—112 — The Udāna in Mhv II, 285 contains in plainer words the same idea.

² His last birth but one The story of V is the most favourite of all the Jātakas and forms the subject of dramatic performances in Burma and Tibet, WADDELL, Buddh of Tib 540—551 Cp HARDY, M of B 116 ff Fa Hian's Rec 106

³ *Yamaka-jātihārīya* Yamaka, a term which has given rise to various remarks, is, if we are not mistaken, a conundrum, a veiled expression for *yoga* in the sense of "juggling, magic", *yamaka*, double, being nearly synonymous with *yoga*, conjunction, and wholly with *yuga*, a couple

⁴ The account of the Lord's stations in MV I, 1—5 is different, viz 1 Bodhi tree, 2 The Goatherd's Banyan tree, 3 Mucalinda, 4 Rājāvatana tree, 5 Goatherd's Banyan tree, cp Majh N I, p 167 In Lal V 488 ff the sequel is 1 Bodhi terrace (Bodhi-mandā), 2 the Long Walk, extending over the whole universe, 3 B looks with unblenching eyes to the Bodhi-mandā, 4. He goes the Short Walk from the Eastern to the Western Ocean, 5 Mucalinda, 6 the Goatherd's Banyan tree, 7 Tārāyana tree

⁵ Their names in P are Tūṇhā, Aratī, Ragā, see more about them S Nip p 157, Samv N I, p 124, Ang N I, 3 In Lal V 490 they occur as Tṛṣṇā, Aratī, Ratī, in Buddhac XIII, 3 Tṛṣ, Prīti, Ratī The episod is wanting in MV

⁶ Lal V 491 Mucalinda. It occurs as the name of a mountain, a lake, a Nāga, and a tree

the first stage on the path to Nirvāna¹, and at the time he received ordination. The next day Vappa (Vāspa) was converted, and on the three following days Bhaddiya (Bhadrīka), Mahānāman and Assaji (Asvajit) successively.² On the fifth day the Master preached to all of them the discourse "On the manity of all physical and mental phenomena" (*Anattalakkhana-Suttanta*) in consequence whereof the 5 monks became in their minds freed from all impurity. Thus there were at that time six Arhats.

In those days there was in Benares a young man, named Yasas (P. Yasa), a wealthy banker's son. Once it happened that he saw the same spectacle of sleeping female musicians as Siddhārtha had witnessed in the night of his flight. Disgusted, he fled the house and directed his steps to the Deerpark. There the Lord saw him and perceiving his predisposition to become a saint, he called him, established him in the fruition of the first stage on the path to Nirvāna, and on the next day in Arhatship.³

Soon afterwards the father of Yasas became a convert as lay devotee. He was the first Upāsaka making profession of faith by taking refuge in the threefold formula (*trāyika*). The mother of Yasas and his wife became likewise lay devotees not long after 54 friends of Yasas took orders, and attained to Arhatship, so that there were then 61 Arhats all in all.

After the rainy season and its solemn close (*pravāranā*, *paṭvāranā*), the Master sent out the 60 in different directions with the words "Go forth O monks wandering and preaching. He himself went to Uruvelā. On his way thither he overcame the temptations of Māra⁴ and converted the Bhaddavaggiyas⁵.

At Uruvelā there lived three brothers, hermits with matted hair and fireworshippers (Jatulas), known by the name of Uruvela-Kassapa (Uruvilvā-Kāsyapa), Nadi-K, and Gavā-K. By performing many miracles⁶ the Tathāgata converted the three brothers, with their disciples. Accompanied by all of them he went to the hill of Gayāsirsa (P. Gayāsīsa), and delivered there his sermon on Burning (*Āditta-parivāya*), in consequence of which all his hearers were established in Arhatship⁷.

After staying for some time near Gayāsirsa the Master wandered with his numerous followers wending his way to the Supatittha Shrine in the Latthivana (Yastivana) near Rājagṛha in order to redeem the promise he had made to Bumbisāra.

When the King heard that the Buddha had arrived, he hastened with a great number of Brahman householders to the Yastivana, and prostrated himself before the feet of the Lord — those feet, marked by the figure of a wheel and emitting a flood of light. As the Brahmans stood in doubt whether

¹ So and upāda see CHILDERS s. vv. *maggo* and *saṃgata*, cp. BIGANDT I, p. 153.

² The formula of ordination is "Come, O monks! well proclaimed is the Law, lead a new life that an end may be put to suffering."

The scene of the story of Yasas is laid in Kusinārā SBE. XIX, 180, but BEAL'S P. 101 agrees with MV.

³ MV I, 11 and 18, cp. ROCKHILL, L. of B. p. 39. No mention of it in Jāt. Intr. p. 82.

⁴ Different from the N. five Bhadravaggiyas = S. Pañcavaggiyas. Yet a Tibetan source has the same story of the 60 young men of "the happy band" or Bhadravarga, see ROCKHILL, L. of B. p. 40.

The same 60 miracles are found MV I, 15—20, cp. Tib. L. 250 f. SBE. XIX, 180.

⁵ SBE. XIX, 181. SBE. XIX, 186.

⁶ SBE. XIX, 181. L. p. 25, has "Rohrhan des festen Kai a' Whether "Rohrhan" is a proper name or a rendering of Yastivana is doubtful. If so, Y. and Varavana would be confused. The name of the Shrine is obviously S. Yastivana cp. P. Supatittha. Cf. ROCKHILL, op. c. p. 42, note.

friars, who had for a while so faithfully attended him. Discovering in his mind that they were living in the Deerpark near Benares, he took the resolution to go thither and inaugurate there the dominion of the Law.¹ He lingered a few days more near the Bodhi tree, and departed on the full moon day of Āṣāḍha.²

On his way he met the Ājīvaka monk Upaka, who struck with his prepossessing exterior, asked him to what order of monks he belonged, and who was his master. Whereupon the Lord, proclaiming his own omniscience and superiority, declared his intention to proceed to Benares to inaugurate the dominion of the Law, and to beat the drum of Immortality (Nirvāṇa) in this world that is groping in darkness.³

On the evening the Master arrived at the Deerpark.⁴ When the Five monks saw him from afar, they said one to another "Brethren⁵, here comes the Sramana Gautama, who has returned to a good life and forsaken all earnest striving. We will not receive him with marks of reverence, but as he is of a good family he deserves the honour of a seat." Such was their agreement, but when the Lord came nearer, they involuntarily rose and respectfully welcomed him. Not knowing that he had become a Buddha, they addressed him by his name or by "Reverend." But the Lord said "Do not, o monks, address me thus, I am a Tathāgata. I will preach you the Law by following which you will attain, even in this life, at the highest degree of holiness."

After persuading them to be attentive, the Master preached his first discourse, in which he set forth that one who renounces the world should shun two extremes: the pursuit of worldly pleasures, and the practice of useless austerities⁶, that it is the middle course, discovered by the Tathāgata, which leads to wisdom and Nirvāṇa. That middle course, as he proceeded to unfold, is the eightfold Path.⁷ Further he gave an exposition of the 4 Axioms or Certainties (Āryasatyāṃ) suffering, the cause of suffering, the suppression of suffering, the path leading to that suppression. During that exposition Kondañña (Kaundinya) came to true insight, and understood⁸ that whatever has an origin is destined to have an end. Thereby he acquired the fruit of

¹ And "begin to turn the wheel of the Law." Both translations of *dharmacakram pravartayitum* are admissible. Yet it must be noticed that the Buddhists usually take the expression in a symbolical sense, and so they did anciently, as is proved by the representations of the wheel at Bharhut, Pl. XIII and XXXI. Cp. Ep. Ind. II, 322. A third meaning results from such epithets as *avādasākāra* — an allusion to the 12 Nidānas and perhaps to the 12 Angas — and *sūksma, gambhīra*, viz. that of "the whole circle of the Law." In such a connection, *dharmacakram varlayati* or *pravartayati* may be rendered with "unfolding the whole of the Dharma."

² The date of his conception and of his entering upon a wandering life. The "few days" must be a week, for it is eight weeks between full moon day of Vaiśākha to full moon in Āṣāḍha.

³ See the Gāthās MV I, 6, Majjh. N. I, p. 169, Lal. V. 526 — Concerning Upaka cp. BURNOUR Intr. 389, FEER, Etudes Buddhiques pp. 15—17.

⁴ The legend about the origin of the name in Mhv. I, 359 ff. presupposes the Prakṛit form *dāya*, not the Skt. *dāva*.

⁵ *Avuso*, properly "Sir, Reverend." It is not exactly indeclinable, as CHILDERS has it, but the vocat. case, also used in addressing a company, of *āyasmāt* (*āyusmat*), see e.g. S. Vibh. IV, 8, 8. The form of the case agrees with Vaidic *-vas*, as in *adruvas*, *bhagos*.

⁶ Cp. BEAL SBE XIX, 174.

⁷ *Aṣṭāṅgiko* (*āryāst*?) *mārgah*, *atthāṅgiko maggo*, viz. right views, 1 thoughts, 1 speech, 1 actions, 1 living, 1 exertion, 1 recollection, 1 meditation, MV I, 6, 18, Digh. N. I, p. 157, Majjh. N. I, p. 47 ff., Samy. N. II, p. 106, Lal. V. 540 ff. Kārand. V, 46. Cp. Vvu. § 44, Dharma. S. L.

⁸ Hence his surname *Añña-* or *Aññāta-Kondañña*, in ungrammatical Skt. *Aññāta-Kaundinya*. Cp. Jeta vana instead of Jetivana. A correction has *Āññāta* K. Vvu. § 47.

5 VISIT TO KAPILAVASTU ORDINATION OF RĀHULA AND NANDA
 BUDDHA'S RETURN TO RĀJAGRHA. CONVERSION OF ĀNANDA
 AND OTHER SĀKYAS ANĀTHAPINDIKA VISĀKHĀ

During the Tathāgata's stay in the Bambu grove, the news reached Śuddhodana that his son had become a Buddha, and was dwelling near Rājagṛha¹. The old King despatched one of his courtiers with a large retinue to bring his son to Kapilavastu. The envoy departed and arrived at the Bambu grove, when the Master was engaged in preaching. The effect was that the courtier and all his followers attained to Arhatship and asked to be ordained. Their request was complied with, and as Arhats become indifferent to worldly matters, they failed to deliver the King's message.

Śuddhodana repeatedly sent other envoys, but the same thing happened to all his messengers nine times over. At last he thought of Udāyin the Black², who was born on the same day as the Bodhisattva and had been his playmate. Udāyin undertook the task, but on the condition that he should be allowed to become a monk. The King agreed to the stipulation, the noble man went off to Rājagṛha, heard the Master preaching and, like his predecessors, obtained Arhatship³.

The Master had spent the time of Retreat during the rains near Benares, then went to Uruvelā, where he stayed 3 months. On the full moon day of Pausa he went to Rājagṛha, remaining there 2 months, so that 5 months had elapsed since he left Benares, and the cold season (*hemanta*) had past, a week after Udāyin's arrival⁴. Now on the full moon day of Phālguna, when the spring in all its loveliness had set in, Udāyin conceived that it was the fit time for the Buddha to visit his family. He went to the Lord, and painted him in glowing colours⁵ the pleasantness of the spring-season, the right time to undertake a journey. When the Master asked to what purpose he so sweetly lauded travelling, Udāyin answered "o Lord, your father desires to see you, deign to pay him a visit." "Well", said the Buddha, "I will do so".

Accompanied by a great number of monks, the Tathāgata left Rājagṛha with the intention of reaching Kapilavastu in two months. But Udāyin went instantly through the air, and made his appearance before Śuddhodana, to whom he announced his son's slow approach. The King, exceedingly pleased, supplied him with a meal, and gave him at the same time a bowl filled with the choicest food for the Buddha. The Sthavira, after throwing the bowl into the air, rose himself up into the sky, caught the portion of food, and presented it to the Master.

Every day the Sthavira brought food in the same manner. He moreover never failed to extol the great qualities of the Buddha in the presence of the Sīkhas, on account of which meritorious act the Lord assigned to him the first place among those who knew to propitiate his family.

Meanwhile the Sīkhas made preparatories to receive their relative, and at his approach went out to meet him at the Banyan garden. In their pride

¹ In Tib. sources the event is placed much later, Śuddhodana hears the tidings from Prasenajit, King of Kosala, Tib. L. p. 16. ROCKHILL op. c. 51.

² Kāḍhāyin, in Skt. writings Kāḍhāyin, which may mean Rising in time.

³ The account in Tib. L. 262 is slightly different, the letter from the King to his son is evident a late invention. The interview between father and son in SBE. XII, 278.

⁴ The Tibetan text presupposes a period of Retreat of three months. Cp. CHILDRESS.

⁵ The Tibetan text 527-530, mentions only 10 suttas instead of 60, as Intr. Jāt. p. 87 has it.

the Great Sramana was the pupil of Uruvelā-Kāśyapa, or the reverse, the Lord penetrating their feelings, summoned the Sthavira to give testimony anent his conversion, whereupon Kāśyapa declared that he had renounced the worship of Fire, and exclaimed "The Lord is my master, I am his disciple" Then he rose into the air, and by that wonder fully convinced the crowd that he had yielded to the Tathāgata But the Lord said "Not now only have I subdued Kāśyapa, in the past, too, he was subdued by me", and on that occasion he told the Mahā-Nārada-Kassapa Jātaka, winding up with a discourse on the 4 AXIOMS On the conclusion the King with almost the whole of the assembly was established in the fruition of the first stage on the path to Nirvāna, and made profession of faith Before taking leave he invited the Lord to dinner for next day

The following morning, when the Master with his disciples entered Rājagṛha, there appeared in front of him a young Brahman — in reality Sakra, who had assumed that shape — singing the praises of Buddha, the Law, and the Congregation in the most lofty strain¹

When the King of Magadha had received his guests, he presented to the Sangha whose chief is the Buddha in the most formal way, by pouring water over the Master's hand, the Bambu grove (Venuvana, P Veluvana). The Buddha accepted the grant, and took up his abode in the grove with his company²

At that time there lived at Rājagṛha a heterodox wandering ascetic (*paribbājaka*), Sañjaya, who had many disciples, amongst whom Sāriputra (Sāriputta) and Maudgalyāyana (Moggallāna)³ On a certain morning Sāriputra saw Asvajit on his begging round, and, impressed by the Sthavira's deportment, he asked him who was his teacher Asvajit answered that his Master was the Great Sramana of the Śākya race, and added that he was not yet able⁴ to give a detailed exposition of the doctrine, the essence of which, however, was contained in the following formula

Of those things (conditions) which spring from a cause
The cause has been told by Tathāgata,
And their suppression likewise
The Great Sramana has revealed⁵

Immediately on hearing this verse Sāriputra was established in the fruition of the first stage on the path to Nirvāna, and he repeated the formula to Maudgalyāyana, who likewise became a convert Both left their teacher Sañjaya Maudgalyāyana attained Arhatship in a week, Sāriputra in a fortnight, and they were elevated by the Buddha to the rank of his two Chief Disciples That distinction excited the jealousy of the other disciples, but the Master proved by references to parallel cases under former Buddhas how their discontent was unfounded⁶

¹ MV I, 22, Intr Jāt p 84, S Nip vi 405—424 Cp WINDISCH op c pp 234—303.

² Cp ROCKHILL op c p 43, SBE. XIX, 193

³ Sāriputra or Sārisuta, also called Upatissa (Upatisa), another name of Maudgalyāyana is Kolita, see MV I, 24, Dh p 120, Tib L p 255, where the history of the two friends before their becoming pupils to Sañjaya is told Sāriputta Dh p 1 c is the son of the Brahmanwoman Sāri, Tib L agrees, but confounds the birds *sāri* and *sārikā* The origin of the names Upatissa and Kolita is differently told II cc For Sāradvatiputra, synonymous with Sāriputra, see Tib L l c and BERNOLF Intr p 312 Cp ROCKHILL op c p 44 and the references there given

⁴ Notwithstanding his being an Arhat.

⁵ An able discussion on the purport of this *confessio fidei* is found in HODGSON'S Ess p 111

⁶ Dh p pp 125 ff Cp ROCKHILL op c p 115, SBE. XIX, 196

On the seventh day the mother of Rāhula, on seeing the Buddha enter the palace, said to her son "Look, Rāhula, that monk there is thy father, go and ask thine inheritance" The boy went up to his father, and said "Monk, give me my inheritance" But the Tathāgata, wishing to make Rāhula the heir of a spiritual inheritance, ordered Śāriputra to confer on the boy the novice ordination (*sāmanera-pabbajjā*) This was done, much to the spite of Suddhodana, who complained of what had happened, and obtained from his son the boon that in the sequel no one should be ordained without the consent of the parents¹

From Kapilavastu the Master returned to Rājagṛha, where he took his abode in the Sītavana²

After the depart of the Buddha, but before his arrival at Rājagṛha, whilst he was staying at Anupiya in the country of the Mallas, many conversions took place in Kapilavastu The chief converts were Anuruddha, brother to Mahānāma, Bhaddiya, Ānanda, Bhagu, Kimbila and Devadatta With the intention to become monks, these Śākian princes followed by Upālī the barber, went in the direction of Anupiya At some distance from Kapilavastu they doffed their fine dresses and gave them to Upālī, who at first accepted them, but on afterthought resolved to follow the princes As soon as they came into the presence of the Master, they asked admission into the Congregation, and, in order to curb their own pride, they requested that the barber should be first ordained Their demand was granted³

At the time when the Lord was at the Sītavana, there came to Rājagṛha a wealthy merchant, Sudatta, surnamed Anāthapindika, from Srāvastī He heard from a friend in whose house he was lodging that the Lord Buddha had arisen, which moved him to go the next morning to the Sītavana. Then he heard the preaching of the Law and became a Srotaāpanna. On the following day he bestowed a great donation on the Sangha having the Buddha for its head, and invited them to come to Srāvastī

In order to prepare for a worthy reception, Anāthapindika returned to Srāvastī, where he bought from the prince Jeta the Jetavana park for 18 Koṭis of goldpieces⁴ There he erected a splendid monastery, in the midst a private room (*gandhakūṭi*) for the Master, and all around separate dwellings for the senior monks, cells etc

On the day when the Lord approached the city, he was received with great pomp, and, on entering the precincts of the monastery, he was asked by the merchant "What, o Lord, shall I do with this Vihāra?" The reply was "Give it to the Sangha present and future" And Anāthapindika, pouring water over the hands of the Buddha, pronounced the solemn formula of

HARDY'S M of B p 205 In Bhadrak XXXV Sundara and Sundarānanda appear synonymous with Ānanda. The bride seems to be identical with the Janapada Kalyāṇī Kuparīnandā Dhṛp Comm on vs 150, cp Therīg vs 82, and her history Par Dhṛp 80 ff

¹ Mv I, 54 Cp Intr Jāt 91, Tib L 265

² P Sītavana, Skt also pleonastically Sītavana-śmaśāna, a cemetery, Divy 264, 268, Tib I 258

³ More amply told CV VII, 1, Dhṛp pp 139 ff Cp HARDY M of B 227 ff Tib L 264, 266 ROCKHILL op c 53 ff Cp Bhadrak XXXV From CV VII, 2 it would appear that Buddha went from Anupiya to Kausāmbī, but BIGANDET I, 183 agrees with the Tib tradition — The Skt names are Anuruddha, Mahānāma, Bhadraka, Bhṛgu, Kimbila is wanting.

⁴ CV VI, 4, Sūtra N I, p 210, Intr Jāt p 92, Bodhiv p 42, HARDY M of B 218 Tib L 258, ROCKHILL op c 47, BEAL SBE. NIV, 201 and 230 The N form of the name is Anāthapindada, in the Bharhut sculpture Pl XXVIII and XVII A.D. 100 for the inscription below the sculpture see CHANDERS in Academy of 874 55 612

they were unwilling to prostrate themselves before him, but by a miracle the Lord forced them to do so¹. The King, seeing that miracle, bowed down before his son. That was his third homage.

Then the Lord came down from the sky, and caused a shower of rain, which only wetted those who liked it, and no others. To the astonished crowd the Teacher said "Not now only a rain falls on my relatives, formerly also the same took place", and on this occasion he related the Visvantara Jātaka.

The next day the Tathāgata entered Kapilavastu to go his begging round. The mother of Rāhula, moved by curiosity, looked out from the high palace to see her former husband, and she beheld him in his monk's habit more glorious than he ever was in his princely state. She glorified him, the Lion of Men, and informed the King that his son was begging in the streets, in the dress of a monk. Suddhodana went to meet the Buddha, and tried to persuade him that begging was unworthy of the descendant of an illustrious royal race, but his son replied "Yours, o King, is that lineage of kings, but mine is the lineage of Buddhas, from Dipamkara down to Kāśyapa. These and all other Buddhas have been in the habit of living on alms". Then he uttered an edifying stanza, after which the King obtained the fruition of the first stage on the way to Nirvāṇa. A second stanza had the effect that Suddhodana reached the second stage². Afterwards he was established in the fruition of the third stage, on hearing the Dharmapāla Jātaka³, and at the moment when he was dying he attained to Arhatship.

On having become a saint of the first degree, the King conducted the Lord with the assembly of monks to the palace, where they partook of a savoury meal. After dinner all the women came and paid their homage to the Lord, except the mother of Rāhula. Then Buddha, flanked by Sāriputra and Maudgalyāyana, went to her apartments, and no sooner had she seen him, than she threw herself at his feet. When Suddhodana praised her and dilated upon her virtuous behaviour, the Lord observed that her good conduct was not to be wondered at, since formerly, too, she watched over herself, and he told the Candakinnara Jātaka⁴.

On the second day Nanda, the son of Suddhodana⁵ and the Matron Gautamī was to celebrate his inauguration as crown prince and his marriage to Janapada-Kalyāṇī (the Beauty of the Land). The Buddha entered the house, and led him away to the Banyan garden. Nanda's bride impatiently waited for the return of her bridegroom, but in vain, for on the third day Nanda, much against his will, was compelled by the Buddha to become a monk⁶.

¹ According to Dhṛp p. 334 the Lord produced in the sky a jewel path on which he moved to and fro, preaching the Law. In Intr Jāt. p. 88 the wonder performed is the same as the one at the foot of the Gandamba tree. Somewhat different again in Tib. I. 263. The essential trait in all is the walking in the sky.

² He was thinking of the same immediately after his Enlightenment, see p. 21.

³ The two stanzas are Dhṛp. vs. 168 f.

⁴ Jit. Nr. 447, a N. version in Mhv. II, 77. This event took place after Rāhula's Ordination.

⁵ Jāt. Nr. 485, represented in a *bas-relief* of Bharhut Pl. XXXII. Other Jātakas referring to Yaśodharā in her former births are found Mhv. II, 68—94, 166, the Kinnarī J. pp. 94—115 is different from the Candak. J., but agrees in substance with Dhṛp. 441 ff., Bhadrak. XXX, Avad. Kalp. LXIV.

⁶ In Bhadrak. XXXV Nanda and Nandika are sons to Dhautodana, a name which must be synonymous with Suddhodana.

⁷ Cp. Tib. I. 265, where the bride is Sundarikā, with ROCKHILL op. c. 55. Bhadrak. In the story of Ānanda's temptation with BICANDET I, 187 J. K. is represented as the wife of Ānanda. The story itself recurs Tib. I. 267, but refers to Nanda, so, too, in

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¹ MV I, 54 Cp Intr Jāt 91, Tib J. 265

² P Sītavana, Skr also pleonastically Sītavana-smasāna, a cemetery, Divy 264, 268, F. J. L. 258

³ More emph told CV VII, 1, Dhp pp 139 ff Cp HARDY M of B 227 ff Tib J. 224, 266, LOCKHILL op c 53 ff Cp Bhadrak XXXV From CV VII, 2 it would appear the Buddha went from Anupiya to Kauśāmbī, but BIGAULT I, 183 agrees with the Tib tradition. — The Skr names are Anuruddha, Mahānāman, Bhaddīa, Bhṛgu, Kimbila etc.

⁴ CV VI, 4, Saka N I, p 210, Intr Jāt p 92, Bodhiy p 42, HARDY M of B 218 Tib J. 258 LOCKHILL op c 47, PRAL SBL XIX, 201 and 230 The N form of the name of Anāthapindika in the Bharhut sculpture Pl XXXVIII and IVI. — For the name of the monastery see CHILDERS in Academ of 1874 546 612

donation. The Master accepted the gift with thanks and celebrated in stanzas the advantages of a monastery¹

In those days Śrāvastī was the residence of Prasenajit (P Pasenadi), king of Kosala, and brother in law to Bimbisāra² There lived also a rich merchant, Migāra³, whose son Pūrnavardhana (Punnavaddhana), became the husband of the virtuous Visākhā⁴, the daughter of Dhanamjaya and Sumanā from Bhaddiya in Anga-land⁵ When she was seven years of age, it happened that the Buddha visiting Bhaddiya, perceived her predisposition to become a convert. In course of time her family migrated to Sāketa, and from this place she went, at the age of sixteen, to Śrāvastī as the bride of Pūrnavardhana. After her marriage she rendered signal services to Buddha and the Congregation, she was the means of converting her father-in-law, who previously was an adherent of the naked Jains, in consequence of which she was surnamed "the mother of Migāra" Another merit of hers was the erection of the monastery of Pūrvārāma (Pubbārāma) near Śrāvastī, which in splendour was inferior only to the Vihāra built by Anāthapīndika Though these occurrences must have taken place several years after the story of Anāthapīndika they are here briefly alluded to⁶

6 ĀMRAPĀLĪ JĪVAKA. BUDDHA'S JOURNEY TO VAISĀLĪ DISPUTE BETWEEN ŚĀKYAS AND KOLIYAS DEATH OF ŚUDDHODANA. ADMISSION OF NUNS INTO THE ORDER CONVERSION OF KHEMĀ.

Once upon a time, when the Tathāgata spent the rainy season near Rājagṛha, at the Kalandaka-nivāpa⁷ in the Bambu grove — it may have been the second or third retreat or later — it came to the notice of Bimbisāra that there was in Vaisālī a famous courtesan, named Āmrapālī (Ambapālī, Ambapālīkā⁸) Being jealous of that city and wishing to emulate with it, he resolved to produce in his own kingdom some courtesan who in accomplishments would be superior to Āmrapālī Such a person was found in the girl Sālavatī After some time she became pregnant by Abhaya, the son of the King She was delivered of a boy, who according to the custom of courtesans was exposed, but accidentally the Prince discovered the infant, and though unaware that it was his own son, he took the boy to the palace, called him Jīvaka, and gave him a careful education⁹

¹ The same stanzas, according to CV VI, 1, were uttered on another occasion, at the donation of 60 Vihāras by a merchant of Rājagṛha.

² A sculpture referring to Prasenajit in Bharhut Pl XIII, cp CUNNINGHAM p 90

³ Skr Migāra, Divv 44, 77, wrongly Migadhara Tib L. 270

⁴ In Dsanglun Chap 28 she is named Anurādhā, the asterism following on Visākhā, Tib L. 1 c

⁵ The name of the place is Bhādrakara in Divv 123 ff The father of Dhanamjaya, Mendaka, also excelled in virtue, as in fact the whole family For the story of Mendaka or Mendhaka see MV VI, 34, Divv 1 c

⁶ For a fuller account see DhP pp 230 ff MV VIII, 15, Divv 44, 77, 466, HARDY M of B 220 ff Tib L. 270, ROCKHILL op c 70 ff More references in ED MÜLLER's Glossary (JPTS of 1888) s v Migāramātā and Visākhā.

⁷ The N Kalandaka-nivāpa, e g Divv 262, and Kalandaka-nivāsa.

⁸ Her history and prehistory is told in Par Dip 207 ff, commenting the highly poetical stanzas ascribed to her, Therīg vv 252—270 Cp ROCKHILL op c 64, Tib L. 253, where she is represented as the mother of Prince Abhaya by Bimbisāra. In Pāli sources, the Comm on Therīg vs 64 and Par Dip 207, she has a son, the Thera Vimula Kondanna by Bimbisāra, in the former passage her name is indicated by the conundrum Dumaharā, the king's by Pandaraketu Abhaya's conversion told Mv III N Nr 58

⁹ The story of Jīvaka is told MV VIII, 1, Mv III N 1, pp 368 ff Cp ROCKHILL l c and Tib L. 253, where J is the son of Bimbisāra, procreated in adultery

When Jivaka surnamed Komārabhacca¹ had reached the years of discretion he went to Takṣaśā to study medicine under a renowned professor. After seven years of study he was perfectly skilled in the art and dismissed as such by his teacher. In course of time the young physician had occasion to show his eminent skill, he cured — not to speak of other cases — Pradyota the Cruel King of Uṇṇayīni as well as Bimbisāra, who appointed him to his physician in ordinary.

On a certain day the Buddha happened to be troubled with constipation. Jivaka was called and by applying a most delicate purgative succeeded in clearing within short the Lord from his disease².

It was not only by this happy cure that Jivaka rendered himself useful to the Master: he presented him also two magnificent pieces of cloth he had received from Pradyota in acknowledgment of his medical services. The Lord accepted this gift and assembling the monks gave them permission to wear a dress presented by laymen, but also, if they pleased, a cloth of rags.

During his stay in the Bambu grove in the third rainy season the Lord received a deputation from the Vaiśālīans imploring him to deliver them from a frightful pestilence which desolated their country. In vain they had sought relief by recurring to the 6 heretical teachers — and now they besought the Buddha to save them. The Master willingly acceded to their demand and proceeded on a road prepared by order of the King to the Southern bank of the Ganges. On the Northern side of the river he was most respectfully received by the Licchavi nobles. No sooner had he set foot in the country than the malign spirits that caused the disease fled away and the sick were restored to health. Having entered the city the Tathāgata uttered the Ratana-sūtra and made numberless converts. After receiving many pious gifts he returned to Rājagṛha.

Three consecutive rainy seasons were spent by the Lord in the Bambu grove. In the fifth he sojourned near Vaiśālī in the Kūtāgāra hall of the Mahāvārāṇa. In that period there arose a dispute between the Śākya and the Kolias about the water of the river Rohinī which owing to an unusual drought was not sufficient to irrigate the fields on both sides of the river. The quarrel rose high and a battle would have ensued had not the Buddha, perceiving by his divine eye what was going on, hastened through the sky

¹ This name goes to a Sar. Kaumārābhacca, but in Divy. 270 and 306 modified to Kumbhābhacca. Komārabhacca, occasionally occurring in P. texts, looks like a misread Komārabhacca. For Jivaka's rendering of Tib. *Gacchana* 301 c is quite fanciful, the name is clearly a corruption of a child's name, the Kaumārābhacca see J. SCHAE Tib. Page 100.

² The Lord had conquered death and disease by his having eradicated their causes, but the consequences of his former *karma* were not completely destroyed, hence he was liable to human infirmities.

According to Hsuan Tsang (B. 220), these things occurred in the twentieth year of the reign of the Licchavi king.

The story of Jivaka's cure is more circumstantial and in a some sense more interesting in the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235, where the event is placed much later in the life of the Buddha. The Kaśyapa Sa. and CHILDERS, IKAS of 1870, and the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235 correspond to the Divy. 273. The story of the cure is more circumstantial and in a some sense more interesting in the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235, where the event is placed much later in the life of the Buddha. The Kaśyapa Sa. and CHILDERS, IKAS of 1870, and the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235 correspond to the Divy. 273. The story of the cure is more circumstantial and in a some sense more interesting in the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235, where the event is placed much later in the life of the Buddha. The Kaśyapa Sa. and CHILDERS, IKAS of 1870, and the Divy. 273, Hsuan Tsang's B. 270 and Tib. 1. 235 correspond to the Divy. 273.

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donation The Master accepted the gift with thanks and celebrated in stanzas the advantages of a monastery¹

In those days Śrāvastī was the residence of Prasenajit (P Pasenadi), king of Kosala, and brother in law to Bimbisāra² There lived also a rich merchant, Migāra³, whose son Pūrnavardhana (Punnavaddhana), became the husband of the virtuous Visākhā⁴, the daughter of Dhanamjaya and Sumanā from Bhaddiya in Anga-land⁵ When she was seven years of age, it happened that the Buddha visiting Bhaddiya, perceived her predisposition to become a convert In course of time her family migrated to Sāketa, and from this place she went, at the age of sixteen, to Śrāvastī as the bride of Pūrnavardhana After her marriage she rendered signal services to Buddha and the Congregation, she was the means of converting her father-in-law, who previously was an adherent of the naked Jains, in consequence of which she was surnamed "the mother of Migāra" Another merit of hers was the erection of the monastery of Pūrvarāma (Pubbārāma) near Śrāvastī, which in splendour was inferior only to the Vihāra built by Anāthapīṇḍika Though these occurrences must have taken place several years after the story of Anāthapīṇḍika they are here briefly alluded to⁶

6 ĀMRAPĀLĪ JĪVAKA. BUDDHA'S JOURNEY TO VAISĀLĪ DISPUTE BETWEEN ŚĀKYAS AND KOLIYAS DEATH OF ŚUDDHODANA. ADMISSION OF NUNS INTO THE ORDER. CONVERSION OF KHEMĀ.

Once upon a time, when the Tathāgata spent the rainy season near Rājagṛha, at the Kalandaka-nivāpa⁷ in the Bambu grove — it may have been the second or third retreat or later — it came to the notice of Bimbisāra that there was in Vaisālī a famous courtesan, named Āmrapālī (Ambapālī, Ambapālīkā⁸) Being jealous of that city and wishing to emulate with it, he resolved to produce in his own kingdom some courtesan who in accomplishments would be superior to Āmrapālī Such a person was found in the girl Sālavatī After some time she became pregnant by Abhaya, the son of the King She was delivered of a boy, who according to the custom of courtezans was exposed, but accidentally the Prince discovered the infant, and though unaware that it was his own son, he took the boy to the palace, called him Jīvaka, and gave him a careful education⁹

¹ The same stanzas, according to CV VI, 1, were uttered on another occasion, at the donation of 60 Vihāras by a merchant of Rājagṛha.

² A sculpture referring to Prasenajit in Bharhut Pl XIII, cp CUṆṆINGHAM p 90

³ Skr Migāra, Divy 44, 77, wrongly Migādhara Tib L 270

⁴ In Dsinglun Chap 28 she is named Anurādha, the asterism following on Visākhā, Tib L 1 c

⁵ The name of the place is Bhadrakāra in Divy 123 ff The father of Dhanamjaya, Mendaka, also excelled in virtue, as in fact the whole family For the story of Mendaka or Mendhaka see MV VI, 34, Divy 1 c

⁶ For a fuller account see Dh p pp 230 ff MV VIII, 15, Divy 44, 77, 466, HARDY M of B 220 ff Tib L 270, ROCKHILL op c 70 ff More references in Ed MÜLLER's Glossary (JPTS of 1888) s v Migāramātā and Visākhā.

⁷ The N Kalandaka-nivāpa, e g Divy 262, and Kalandaka-nivāsa.

⁸ Her history and prehistory is told in Par Dip 207 ff, commenting the highly poetical stanzas ascribed to her, Therīg v 252—270 Cp ROCKHILL op c 64, Tib L 253, where she is represented as the mother of Prince Abhaya by Bimbisāra In Pālī sources, the Comm on Therīg vs 64 and Par Dip 207, she has a son, the Thera Vimala Kondañña by Bimbisāra, in the former passage her name is indicated by the conundrum Dumayhaya, the king's by Pandaraketu Abhaya's conversion told Majjh N Nr 58

⁹ The story of Jivaka is told MV VIII, 1, Majjh N I, pp 368 ff Cp ROCKHILL l c and Tib L 253, where J is the son of Bimbisāra, procreated in adultery

to the place where the parties stood ready to fight, and moved them to lay down the arms. The eloquent discourse which he delivered at that occasion had the effect that he made many converts¹

A short time after the event the Buddha got the notice that his father was seriously ill. Without delay he flew with some of his followers through the sky to Kapilavastu. Having come into the presence of the patient, he preached to him the instability of all things, so that Śuddhodana reached the fourth stage, that of Arhatship, and, paying for the third time in his life homage to his son, he entered Nirvāṇa.

After the death of her husband, the Matron Gautamī² desired to forsake the world and embrace a religious life. Therefore she went to the Lord, who was then sojourning in the Banyan garden, and asked to become a nun. But the Buddha refused, because he would not admit females into the Order, and returned to Vaiśālī.

Far from giving up her design, the widowed Queen and many other ladies cut their hair, put on yellow robes and went on foot to Vaiśālī. When these ladies, covered with dust, with swollen feet, and bathed in tears arrived at the Kūṭāgāra hall, they were seen by Ānanda, who, having ascertained the object of their journey, went to the Master and pleaded in their favour. At first the Buddha was unwilling to admit women into the Congregation, at last, however, at the instances of Ānanda, who remembered him of the motherly care of Gautamī, he gave his consent, but on the condition that the Matron should submit to 8 duties of subordination (*garudhamma*). Gautamī gladly promised to keep those duties³, whereupon she with all the other ladies became nuns.

Although the Master thus had ceded to the entreaties of Ānanda, he was fully aware of the dangerous consequences attending on the admission of women. "If no women had been admitted into the Order", said he to Ānanda, "the Good Law would stand 1000 years, but now chastity and holiness will not last long, and the Law will only stand 500 years". His misgivings proved true by the subsequent events: the ladies, even Gautamī, were now and then fretful, and some time afterwards, when the Lord sojourned at Srāvastī, some nuns moved the indignation of the public by their scandalous behaviour⁴.

From Vaiśālī the Tathāgata went to Śrāvastī, where he spent the 6th rainy season. At the end of the Retreat he removed to Rājagṛha. Whilst he was staying in the Bambu grove happened the conversion of Khemā, wife to Bimbisāra. In the pride of her beauty she had never deigned to see the Lord, but on a certain day, when she was taking her recreation in the Bambu grove, she was brought by a contrivance of the King into the presence of the Master, who, to cure her from her vanity, produced by his miraculous power a female beautiful as a Nymph from heaven. While she was gazing on that apparition, he made it pass through the stages of youth, middle age, old age, and death. By that frightful sight Khemā was prepared to hear the lessons of the Master, and on hearing him utter some stanzas⁵ she at once

¹ Dh p 351, Jāt V, p 412. Cp HARDY M of B 307.

² For details concerning G see ED MÜLLER in Par Dip p XI.

³ As to those duties and the whole story of the admission of G see CV X, 1, cp HARDY E. M p 157, M of B 312, ROCKHILL op c 61. The institution of the Order of nuns took place in the 7th year according Tib I 268, nearly agreeing with the chronology in BIGANDET.

⁴ Instances of indecent conduct are related CV X, 9—27.

⁵ Par Dip p 133, vs 66—70, cp Dh p vs 347.

In the ninth month she rendered herself at evening time to the place where the Master was in the act of preaching. There, in the presence of the assembly, she accused the Buddha of being the cause of her pregnancy, and required that he should provide a place for her approaching confinement.

The Tathāgata, interrupted in his teaching, answered with a roaring voice "Sister, whether thy words be true or not true, nobody knows but myself, and thou" And in that very moment, lo! Sakra followed by four angels who were transformed into young mice came to the spot. The mice gnawed through the strings by which the wooden globe designed to give the appearance of pregnancy was fastened, and so the globe fell to the ground, crushing the feet of the wicked Ciñcā. Hooted at and pursued by the indignant people, she at once disappeared in the midst of flames rising from the depth of the earth, and descended to the bottom of the hell Avīci.¹

The eighth Retreat was held at the Crocodile-hill² in the Deerpark of the Bhesakalā-forest in the Bharga country³. At that time the Prince Bodhi, having just finished the palace Kokanada, sent a young Brahman to invite the Master with the disciples to dinner. The invitation being accepted, the palace was spread over with white cloth down to the last row of steps, and the Prince went out to meet his guest. The Buddha came near, but stopped at the lowest step and refused to proceed farther. He cast a significant glance at Ānanda, and the latter said to the Prince "Let this cloth be removed, Prince. The Lord will not tread on a strip of cloth, for he has compassion on the meanest thing". Then the cloth was removed, the Tathāgata went up to the palace, and sat down to partake of dinner with his followers. After finishing his meal, he edified the assembly by a discourse, and lay down the rule that the monks were forbidden to tread on cloth — From Bharga country the Buddha set out for Srāvastī⁴.

According to a S tradition⁵, the Lord spent the ninth Retreat at Kauśāmbī, in the Ghositārāma⁶. During his stay in this place there arose deplorable dissensions among the brethren. One of the monks had infringed unintentionally a point of discipline, and was therefore accused by another. The former protested. Some brethren took the part of the defendant, others that of the accuser, and the dispute became more and more vehement. The Master tried repeatedly to allay the strife, he told the beautiful story of

¹ Dh p 338, Jāt IV, p 187. Fa Hian, Rec p 60. Cp TFR JA of 1895, pp 200 ff.

² *Sum-sumāra giri*, P. *Sumsumāra giri*. *Sumsumāra* is given as an equivalent of *Fumfifa*, and the corresponding word in Skr is decidedly *not* *Delphinus Gringeticus* in *Suśruta* I 205, for the animal has feet

³ Tib. L. 316 has for Bhesakalā "the Deerpark of the Yaksas Bhavamkara", and for Pali Bharga wrongly Vagga. — In BIGANDT the 8th Retreat immediately follows on the shade in Srāvastī, but CV V, 21 the B. comes from Vaiśālī.

⁴ CV V, 22.

⁵ BIGANDT I, 234.

⁶ I.e. Ghosita's garden. Ghosita, in N texts also Ghosila, is one of the three ministers of Udena (P. Udenak, King of the Vatsa country, in the capital Kauśāmbī (Kosambī). Udena is a popular personage in Indian fable lore. As to the Buddhist version of his story see Dh p 155 ff., Divy pp 328 ff., Tib. L., 269, 276, hr. three names here: *Samavati*, *Vasudevatī*, and *Maṇḍivā* or *ndivā*, N. *Svāmavati*, *Anupamā* (perhaps), = S. *Maṇḍivā* the daughter of the heterodox Māṇḍika, and, as known from other sources *Vasudevatī*. It was Ghosita who presented the garden to Buddha. Dh p 167, Fa Hian, Rec p 66, where Irgers Ghochira should be Ghosila, cp BRU SILL M. 245. The name of the garden in N sources is usually *Ghositārāma*, Tib. L. 276, 316. — Concerning the ambelifer *Maṇḍivā* see Mil P 313, Majjh N I, 502 C. Dh p 162. S. Nir p 157.

appear that in order to confound the obstinate Tīrthikas, a grand display of miraculous power by the Lord would be required.

The heretics, finding no encouragement for their tricks from Bimbisāra, went to the King Prasenajit in Śrāvastī, in the hope there to be more successful¹ The Buddha, knowing what was going on, and remembering that Śrāvastī was the very place where all former Buddhas had shown their greatest miracle, travelled to that capital and took his abode in the Jetavana. A few days after his arrival the great show would be performed in the presence of Prasenajit, the six Tīrthikas, and an immense crowd. The Master created in the sky an immense road from the Eastern to the Western horizon, and after ascending it he began performing a series of inimitable wonders, first appeared a reddish gleam, then a flood of light, glittering as gold, which spread over the whole world — phenomena similar to those which the world saw when he took possession of the seat of Enlightenment. From his elevated place he preached the Law to mortals, and the people who heard him came to understand the four Axioms.

The six heretical teachers were confounded, and quite powerless, so that the Lord in full justice could declare "The fire-fly shineth as long as the Sun doeth not shine, but as soon as the great luminary hath risen, the worm is overpowered by the rays and shineth no more"² An attempt of Pūrāṇa-Kāśyapa to annul the effects of the Lord's miracles and teaching was utterly unsuccessful, and in despair he tied a large jar to his neck, threw himself into the river, was drowned, and went, as he deserved, to the lowest of hells, Avīci.

It is a fixed law that all Buddhas after performing their great miracle resort to the heaven of the 33 gods. After producing a shadowy likeness of himself, the Tathāgata vanished, and went to heaven, in order to expound the Abhidharma to his mother Māyā³ Since every day he had to go his begging round on earth, he created a likeness of himself, that had to continue the teaching of the Abhidharma during his own temporary absence.

During three months the Lord stayed in heaven. When he was about to descend, Śakra ordered Viśvakarman to construct a triple ladder, the foot of which was put near the town of Sāmkāśya (P. Sankissa). Flanked by Brahma on the right, and by Śakra on the left, the Tathāgata descended, and came down near Sāmkāśya, on the spot where all Buddhas set their feet when descending from heaven. A celebrated shrine has been erected on that very spot⁴.

From Sāmkāśya the Buddha went to the Jetavana near Śrāvastī. The Tīrthikas, more angry than ever at his increasing fame and the loss of their own profits, now tried to obtain by slander what they could not effect by fair means. For that purpose they induced a young woman, Ciñcā⁵ by name, who was a lay devotee of their sect, to accuse the Sramana Gautama of having had carnal intercourse with her. The wily woman succeeded, by feigned visits to the Jetavana, to arouse the suspicion of the public, and contrived a means to assume the appearance of a person in a state of pregnancy.

¹ Divy. XII, (transl. BURNOUF Intr. pp. 162 ff.), cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 79, BIGANDET I, 216 ff.

² Cp. the expression Dhp. p. 338. Tīttihīyā suriyuggame khaṇḍjopanakasadiṣā ahesum.

³ BIGANDET I, 221 ff. Cp. Tib. L. 272.

⁴ BIGANDET I, 225 ff., Divy. 401, Tib. L. 273, ROCKHILL op. c. 81, Fa Hian, Rec. pp. 47 ff., Voy. II, 237 ff. The ladder is represented at Bharhut Pl. XVII, central compartment.

⁵ Ciñca-Mānavikā.

In the twelfth rainy season the Lord stayed near the town of VERAÑJĀ¹. A certain Brahman there came to visit him and became a believer. On the invitation of the Brahman Buddha spent at VERAÑJĀ the whole season, at the end of which period he took leave of the hospitable convert, and travelled all over the country as far as SOREYYA near TAKṢAŚILĀ, thence to SĀMĪKĀSYA, KANAṬ PRAYĀGA, where he crossed the Ganges, directing himself to Benares. From this city he travelled to VAISĀLĪ where he took his abode in the KŪTĀGĀRA hall².

The thirteenth Retreat was held in ŚRĀVASTĪ and CĀLIKĀ, the following rainy season was spent in the JETAVANA³ where RĀHULA, then 20 years old, received the UPASAMPADĀ Ordination. In the same year the Master visited KAPILAVASTU.

During his stay in the Banyan garden he had to endure a grave insult from his father-in-law, SUPRABUDDHA⁴. One day as the latter was informed that the TATHĀGATA was about to go his begging round in a certain quarter of the town, he went out, after intoxicating himself with liquor, planted himself in the middle of the street, barring the passage to the Buddha and vilely abusing him. The Master quietly glancing at ĀNANDA, uttered the prediction that in a week SUPRABUDDHA should be swallowed alive by the earth. SUPRABUDDHA laughed at that prediction and imagined that he might easily avoid his doom by remaining during a week in the tower of his palace, but he should experience that no place on earth can afford shelter to the author of a wicked deed⁵. On the fatal day the earth burst open under his feet, and he sunk in the abyss down to the bottom of the AVĪCĪ hell as a punishment for his wickedness⁶.

S. THE YAKṢA OF ĀLAVĪ APPOINTMENT OF ĀNANDA. CONVERSION OF ANGULMĀLA. MURDER OF SUNDARĪ. ANĀTHA-PINDIKAS DAUGHTER.

The Lord returned from KAPILAVASTU to the JETAVANA monastery⁷. Hence he proceeded to ĀLAVĪ, where he succeeded in converting a cruel YAKṢA who was in the habit of devouring the children of that place. When the Buddha came in his presence, the monster received him with contempt and threats. But gradually overcome by the meekness and patience of the Master, he felt softer feelings spring up in his breast, and at last he said 'I will ask you, ŚRAMANA, some questions. If you are not able to solve them I shall tear out your heart or fling you into the Ganges'. The Lord quietly allowed

¹ In Skr the town is called VARANĀSĪ, VARANĀSYA, P. VERAÑJO, being the Adj. VARANĀSĪ, which is the name of the people and country in AVAD. K. L. 27.

² S. Vith. I, 1. 4.

Thus BIGANDET I, 240. In N traditions Buddha spent the 12th rainy season in the PUNDRIKA grove, the 13th in the JETAVANA, the 14th in the SAMSAṬ grove near NALIKĀ, T. L. 315.

³ So HARRIS, M. of B. p. 152 and p. 339, but, curiously enough, he is called p. 134 the father of M. L. just as in Tib. L. p. 234.

⁴ D. p. 128.

⁵ SUPRABUDDHA was one of the five persons thus punished for a heinous crime against the Buddha or against one of the latter's disciples, the four others being DARADATTA, the son of NALAKA the YAKṢA NANDAKA, and CHĪTĀ. Mil. P. 101.

⁶ I have referred to a legend, but he should refer the conversion of the Brahman to a legend. N. text wrongly transcribed as PAKKARASĪ, instead of PAKKARASĪDĪ. See also the text of the S. Nip. p. 112, cp. POKKHILL, op. cit. 82 and 83. The interesting Śiddhāntavāda in D. v. pp. 611-659, BUTCHER, loc. cit. 205.

Dīghāvu, the son of Dīghiti, King of Kosala¹, but all his wisdom and kind remonstrances were in vain. At last disgusted with such a state of things, and judging that good counsels would be squandered on such fools, he left their company, but not before uttering in the midst of the assembly some suitable stanzas². Thereupon he repaired to the village of Bālakalonākāra, with the intention to devote himself to a hermit's life. After a meeting with the venerable Bhagu he proceeded to the Eastern Bambu park (Pācīna-Vamsadāya), where Anuruddha, Nandiya and Kimbila were living in the most perfect unity and concord. They cordially welcomed their Master, who gladdened them with a sermon, and then went farther to Pārileyyaka. There, dwelling in the Rakkhita grove, at the foot of a Bhadrāsāla tree, he felt all the happiness of a solitary life.

Near that place, there lived a noble elephant who had experienced much inconvenience from the herd of elephants in his train. Therefore he had left the herd and came to Pārileyyaka. He approached the Lord, provided him with food and drink, and enjoyed his calm life, now that he lived remote from the crowd of elephants which had given him so much trouble. The Buddha fully understood the feelings of the animal, and gave vent to his feeling of sympathy in a stanza³.

After dwelling for sometime at Pārileyyaka, the Lord went to Śrāvastī. In the meanwhile the seditious monks of Kausāmbī had received such signal marks of disrespect from the laity in that city, that they resolved upon going to Śrāvastī to have the question settled before the Master. Both contending parties having arrived at Śrāvastī laid the case anew before the Lord, who by pronouncing a lawful decision restored the concord in the Sangha⁴.

During the eleventh Retreat the Tathāgata sojourned near Rājagṛha. One day, when he was in the district of the Southern hills (Dakkhināgiri) at the village of Ekanālā, he saw the Brahman Bhāradvāja superintending the labourers in his fields⁵. On perceiving the Buddha, the Brahman said "O Śramana, I plough and sow, and by doing so find my subsistence. Do thou also plough and sow to live upon." The Lord replied "I, too, O Brahman, plough and sow, and by doing so find my food." The Brahman, surprised at that answer, said "I do not see, reverend Gautama, that you have a yoke, ploughshare, goad or bullocks. How can you then say that you, too, are a labourer?" Then the Lord said "Faith is the seed I sow, devotion is the rain, modesty is the ploughshaft, the mind is the tie of the yoke, mindfulness is my ploughshare and goad. Truthfulness is the means to bind, tenderness, to untie. Energy is my team and bullock, leading to safety and proceeding without backsliding to the place where there is no sorrow."

The Brahman was so much impressed by the parable that he became a convert and made profession of faith.

¹ MV. A., 2, Jāt. III, 212, 489, Dh. pp. 104 ff.

² MV. A., 3, cp. Dh. vv. 3-6, 328-330, S. Nip. Khaggavisāna S. vv. 11, 12. Cp. the Khaggavisāna Gāthās Mhv. I, 357-359.

³ A detailed account of the dissensions in Kausāmbī is contained in MV. A., 1-4, Dh. pp. 103 ff. Cp. Jāt. III, p. 489. The Pārileya elephant is made mention of in Jāt. Māla XIX, 36.

⁴ MV. A., 5, an account with some traits wanting in MV. occurs Dh. p. 107, agreeing with BIGANDET I, 236.

⁵ Sam. N. VII, 2, 1, and with some variations S. Nip. No. 4, cp. Prof. RHYS DAVIDS, B. p. 134.

he flew in the company of 500 disciples through the sky and alighted in the courtyard of the merchant's house. All the inmates rejoiced to behold the Master and his disciples. Attentively they listened to his preaching, and the whole family along with many other people became converts. After leaving Anuruddha in Anga to complete the work of conversion, the Buddha reverted to Srāvastī¹.

After the narrative of the occurrences in the 20th rainy season there is in the history of the Master "an almost complete blank"². For a period of 23 years a summary of the Buddha's proceedings is wanting, although various incidents may be held to fall within that period. In the Tibetan Life of Sākyamuni there is something like a chronological arrangement of events, but not a few of them belong, according to the Southern compilations, to earlier years.

9 DEVADATTA AND AJĀTAŚATRU. CONVERSION OF AJĀTAŚATRU. DESTRUCTION OF THE ŚĀKYAS

A new period of stirring events, — whatever may be thought of their historical character — may be said to date from the death of Bimbisāra and the accession to the throne of his parricidal son Ajātasatru. This took place when the Buddha had reached the age of 72 years.

Already long before that epoch enmity had sprung up in the breast of Devadatta against the Lord, whose growing fame and influence filled him with jealousy³. By his supernatural power he won the favour of the Prince royal, Ajātasatru, and by that mighty protection he hoped one day to become the leader of the Congregation of monks.

Some time afterwards, when the Lord, sojourning in the Bambu grove, was preaching the Law, Devadatta rose from his seat, and reverentially made the proposal that the Lord, on account of his age, should leave the leadership of the Congregation of monks to him, Devadatta⁴. But on this request he received, three times over, a flat refusal. From that moment Devadatta harboured evil designs against the Lord.

In consequence of what had happened, the Master ordered the monks that Devadatta should be publicly denounced as one who had proved false, and whose words and deeds were not to be recognized as issuing from the Buddha, the Law, or the Congregation.

The act of denunciation was carried out by Sāriputra, accompanied by a number of monks. The exasperated Devadatta went to Ajātasatru Vaidehīputra and incited him to kill Bimbisāra. "Do you kill your father, and become king", said he, "and I will kill the Lord and become Buddha". The Prince lent the ear to the instigation of the traitor, and was about to carry his murderous plan into effect, when he was detected and brought before

¹ A remarkable Northern version of the story, in which Anāthapīṇḍika's daughter, named Sam'gallā, occurs in Tib. I. 283.

² F. 1. 1. 260.

³ For a fuller account of the growing enmity of Devadatta, his wicked deeds and how often we refer the reader to CV. VII, 1—4, Dh. pp. 139 ff. Hariv. VI of B. 187. Tib. I. 278, cp. ROCHILL op. c. 83 ff. BRILL, SBL. XIX, 246 ff. Cp. also Sā. 7. N. I. 154. Ang. N. II, p. 73 = CV. VII, 2. 5.

⁴ The story is recorded according to Tib. I. 278 in the 25th rainy season. The reason for this is that the Buddha, as so old, is significant, as he himself was of the same age. Sā. 7. N. I. 154.

the Yakṣa to put the questions and immediately solved them to the satisfaction of the enquirer, who became a believer and mended his life¹. Afterwards on the spot of that conversion a monastery was erected².

From Ālavī the Master went to Rājagṛha, where he spent the 17th rainy season in the Bambu grove. The time of Retreat being over, he resumed his preaching all over the country, and came, after a short stay at Śrāvastī, again to Ālavī. The 18th season was spent on a hill near Cālikā, the following again in the Bambu grove, the 20th in the Jetavana³. It was in this year that Ānanda was appointed as the Lord's waiter⁴. Another event of importance in that period was the conversion of Angulimāla or Angulimālaka, a famous robber and murderer in Kosala. Undaunted by all evil reports, the Buddha went to the abode of the robber in the forest, and by his equanimity succeeded in conquering the fierceness of the cruel Angulimāla, who not only became a convert, but in a short time attained Arhatship, much to the wonder of the brethren⁵. The Master, however, showed them how Angulimāla by eradicating his sinful propensities had so rapidly reached perfection.

During the stay of the Lord in the Jetavana another attempt was made by his heretical opponents to blacken his reputation. They hired some bravoos to murder the nun Sundarī. The crime was perpetrated, and the body of Sundarī thrown into a thicket near the Jetavana monastery. When the corpse had been found, the Tīrthikas intimated that no other but Gautama could be the author of the crime, but by an accident the real culprits were found out, and the heretics put to shame⁶.

About that time the pious Anāthapīṇḍika gave his daughter⁷ in marriage to the son of a friend of his in Anga. As that friend was an adherent of the naked ascetics, Anāthapīṇḍika, fearing lest his daughter would be shaken in her convictions, gave her a retinue of female attendants to support her in the true faith. When the young wife had come to her new home, she was required by her father-in-law to pay her respects to the naked ascetics. Disgusted at the sight of these heretics, the young woman refused even to look at them, which much exasperated her father-in-law, but by keeping firm and by continually extolling the glorious virtues of the Buddha and the Sangha, she excited in her mother-in-law and other ladies of the town the eager desire to see the Lord and to hear him preach the Law.

The Lord, who in the early morning surveys with his allseeing eye the whole of Jambudvīpa, perceived what was happening in Anga land. At once

¹ For these questions and answers see Samy. N. 11, 12, S. Nip. I, 10. Cp. the account in BIGANDET I, 246, and the variation in HARDY M. of B. 261 ff.

² Ālavī is the Skt. Ātāvī, and undoubtedly the place designated as the "Wood village" in Tib. L. 315, with a monastery where B. is said to have spent the 29th rainy season. It was situated between Kosala and Magadha. The monastery may be identified with the Aggālaya Shrine near Ālavī, Samy. N. VIII and CN. VI, 17, cp. 21, where we read that the Lord went from Ālavī to Rājagṛha.

³ BIGANDET I, 248 ff.

⁴ P. *upatthāka*, in Skt. Buddhist writings *upasthāyaka*, in other works *upasthāyin*, *upasthāyika*, *upasthātar*. Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 88.

⁵ A more detailed account in BIGANDET I, 254, HARDY M. of B. 249 ff. Cp. Dh. 147, 337, 434, Mil. P. 410. The story of A. has so many traits in common with the Ālavakī Yakṣa's that it is not strange to see how Tib. L. 315 ascribes to Angulimāla — this must be meant by the Tib. *Lag rgyud* "Handreihe" — the erection of a monastery at Ālavī.

⁶ Ud. p. 43, Avad. K. L., 26, 70, where she is termed a *ṣaṇṇā rājikā*. To her are ascribed Therīg. vi. 312—337, her history Par. Dip. 228 ff.

⁷ Two daughters of his, Subhaddā the Great, and S. the Little, are mentioned Intr. Jt. p. 93.

rules and thus he created a schism. After he had gone with these followers to the Gayāsīra hill it happened that he was preaching and saw Sāriputra with Maudgalyāyana in the assembly. On the erroneous supposition that they had joined his party, he invited Sāriputra to deliver a sermon, as he himself felt tired and wanted to sleep. Sāriputra and Maudgalyāyana now addressed the assembly and prevailed upon the 500 schismatics to return to the Buddha. When Devadatta, roused from his slumber by Kokālika, heard what had happened, the hot blood issued from his mouth.

The wickedness of Devadatta could not remain unpunished, and the Master accordingly declared to his disciples that the man who had thus been swayed by his bad passions was doomed to remain for a Kalpa in states of suffering and punishment². And he, once so wise and virtuous, so bright with glory, went down to the deepest of hells, to be reborn after a Kalpa as a Pratyekabuddha, named Atthissara, or as others say, Devarāja².

King Ajātasatru having killed his father, felt the pangs of conscience. In his anxiety and doubts, he consulted the six Tīrthikas, the adversaries of the Lord, but their teachings disappointed him. Then on the advice of Jīvaka, the physician he went to the great spiritual physician, the Tathāgata, and owing to the words of wisdom he heard from the Master's lips he became a convert to the true faith.

During the reign of Ajātasatru, in the 7th year, the Śākya-race met with a sad fate. King Prasenajit of Kosala had a son Vīdūḍabha, by Vāsabhakkhattiyā the natural daughter of Mahīnāman, the successor of Śuddhodana in Kapilavastu, and of a slave girl. It was by deceit that Vāsabhakkhattiyā had been affianced by the Sākya. When the trick afterwards was discovered, and Vīdūḍabha had been slighted by the Sākya, he resolved to take revenge. With the assistance of the commander-in-chief Dīgha-Kāṛāyana he dethroned his father Prasenajit, who fled from Srāvastī and died soon afterwards. Vīdūḍabha now marched against Kapilavastu, in consequence of which the whole Śākya clan was exterminated. He himself, however, miserably perished, along with his Kosala company, by a sudden flood.

In the N version of the story Vidūdabha is named Virūdhaka, his mother Mālikā⁴, and the commander-in-chief Dirgha-Cārāyana. In spite of other variations the main features of the tale are the same⁵.

१. *Ārā* *śrara*, *śr*. There are 4 *āpāvas* *rarakā*, hell, purgatory, *śrataloka*, the world of spectres *śrarakā*, the world of demons, *śrarakā*, the state of brute, see CHILDERS s. 7. In Lal V. 238 the number of *āpāvas* is three.

328. In Hira, loc. p. 60, say in Srāvastī he very spot where Devadatta went down to hell. How he came in Srāvastī is left unexplained in the N. traditions, which, indeed, represent him as continuing his wicked attempts s. after the conversion of Ajātaśatru. Aśśara means "the Lord of 16" (of course *kalā*).

here of Parana Kāśyapa, notwithstanding his previous death, has nothing in it to surprise us. For a kind of *Atomic* value the Buddhist authorities attach to such tales, is egregiously exemplified by the fact that the six heretical teachers reappear on the scene in the days of Māgasaṇḍa and the King Maṇḍar — as busy and mischievous as ever. Cf. P. 1 p. 45.

4. K. W. 174⁵ Dep pp 216-225, cp HARM M of B 283

1. *See* IV, 17, 177-178; *ibid.* pp. 216-223, cp. *ibid.* n. 10, p. 233.
2. *See* *ibid.*, Tib. L. 287. *ibid.* Both renderings of Tib. Phreng can be ad-
3. *See* *ibid.* concerning 12. *See* *ibid.*

[illegible]

the King, who magnanimously abdicated and gave over the kingdom to Ajātasatru¹

Then Devadatta went to Ajātasatru to secure for himself the Prince's support in his design to deprive Gautama of life. Having got the consent of the ruler, the traitor hired 16 men to murder the Buddha. But when the bravoës saw the Lord, they felt themselves so overawed that they fell at his feet, confessed their sinful intention and became converts. One man returned to Devadatta and declared that it was impossible to deprive the Lord of life. Devadatta now took to another means to accomplish his criminal design. He watched the moment when the Lord was walking in the shade below the Gṛdhrakūṭa mountain and hurled down a large piece of rock to crush his enemy. But two mountain peaks came together and stopped that rock, so that only a splinter caused the Lord's foot to bleed. Then the Master, looking up, said to Devadatta "Foolish man! great is the demerit you have produced for yourself", and to the monks "Devadatta has here committed one of the deadly sins that bring with them immediate retribution"²

When the monks heard of the nefarious attempt of Devadatta, they were much affected and made loud recitations to protect the Lord, but he allayed their fears, saying "It is impossible that one should deprive the Tathāgata of life by violence. The Tathāgatas reach extinction in due and natural course"

A last attempt on the Lord's life was made by Devadatta by means of the elephant Nālāgiri, whom they maddened and then let loose in the carriage road of Rājagṛha. No sooner had the infuriated animal come into the presence of the Lord, than he was pervaded by a sense of benevolence issuing from the Buddha, and lowered his trunk. Some edifying words of the Master were sufficient to wholly subdue the elephant, that took up the dust from off the Lord's feet, sprinkled it over his head and quietly retired³

After these events Devadatta made an attempt to stir up discord in the Sangha⁴. He persuaded Kokālika, Kaṭamoraka-tissaka, Khandadevi-putta, and Samuddadatta⁵ to go with him to the Buddha in order to request that a life of more severe ascetism should be prescribed for all members of the Congregation, viz to live as hermits in the woods, to beg lifelong for food, without ever accepting an invitation, to clothe themselves in cast off rags, to dwell at the foot of trees, to abstain from fish and meat. The Master refused to accede to these demands, and declared that he left liberty to those who wished to live in such a manner, but that he would not make those rules obligatory for all monks.

Devadatta, who had expected this refusal, made it a pretext for agitating against the Lord. He gained over to his party 500 Vṛjjan monks from Vaisālī, who having recently entered the Congregation, were ignorant of the

¹ We know from other sources that Bimbisāra was murdered by Ajātasatru, Digh. N. I, p. 85, Divy. p. 280, HARDY M. of B. p. 318, Tib. L. 284, ROCKHILL op. c. 89—91.

² *Anantariya-* or *ānantarika-kamma*, coinciding with five of the six *abhiṭhānas*. They are *māluḅhāta*, *pituggha*, *arahataggha*, *lohitupphāda*, and *saṅghabheda*. S. Nip. p. 40, cp. CHILDERS s. v. *pañcānantariyakammaṇi* and *abhiṭhānaṇi*. The corresponding Skt. terms of the 5 *Anantariya* are given Vin. § 122, WASSILIEF B. 240 has *Anantariya*. — Any one guilty of such a crime, should not be ordained, and, if he is a monk, be expelled, MN. I, 64—67.

³ Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 93, BEAL SBE. XIX, 247.

⁴ *Saṅghabeda*. The tale — supposing it has an historical basis — is misplaced, since all connection between Devadatta and the Master was broken off.

⁵ Evidently the same as the 5 Śākyas Kokālika, Kaṭamoraga, Tissa, Khandadevī, and Sagaradatta of Tib. L. 266. Whether Khandadevi-putta is identical with Khandadeva in Samy. N. I, 5, 10, II, 3, 4, is not clear.

staying in her Mango grove she went with a splendid train in her carriage to near the entrance of the grove where she alighted to proceed on foot to the place where the Master was. After hearing his edifying lessons, she invited him with the monks to come next day to her house in order to take the meal. The invitation was accepted. On the same day the Licchavi grandees came with the same invitation and when the Tathāgata told them that he refused because he had already accepted the invitation of Āmrapālī, they could not but acknowledge that they were outdone by the courtesan.

On the following day Āmrapālī entertained her distinguished guests and after the meal, she presented her grove to the Congregation having for its chief the Buddha³.

From Vāsālī⁴ the Master went to a village in the neighbourhood of that city, Beluva where he spent his last Retreat. There a severe illness befell him but by a strong effort of his will he recovered soon, yet he felt that now at the age of 80 years his end was approaching. One day after the rainy season he walked with Ānanda to the Cāpāla Shrine. He intimated to his disciple that, if he desired he could through his miraculous power remain in the same existence for a Kalpa, but Ānanda whose heart was possessed by Māra did not understand the hint and did not beseech the Master to remain for a Kalpa. Not only Ānanda the Buddha himself was tempted by Māra urging him to pass away from existence. The Tathāgata replied that he would not die until his law should be firmly established and when the Friend remarked that the Law was already established and widely spread the Lord answered 'Be content Friend, the final extinction of the Tathāgata shall take place ere long. At the end of three months hence the Tathāgata will die.'

After staying at that place some time explaining to Ānanda many matters connected with the Law the Master proceeded to the Kūṣāgāra hall in the Mahāvana. There too he was untired in exhorting and teaching the disciples. The same he did in the following stations of his journey.

It was about this time — if we may trust a N tradition — that Śāriputra died and immediately after Maudgalyāyana⁵. A S account assigns to their death nearly the same date a week after the Buddha had spent the rainy season in Beluva⁵. According to another N tradition again the two chief disciples died shortly after a visit to Devadatta in hell⁶.

When the Buddha had reached Pāvā he resided there in the Mango grove of Cunda the smith. This man invited the Master to do him the honour of partaking of a meal at his house next day. The invitation was accepted and the smith prepared the meal consisting of rice with cakes and

10 EVENTS IN THE LAST YEAR AJĀTASATRU AND THE VṚJĪANS
 BUDDHA LEAVES RĀJAGRHA JOURNEY TO PĀTALIGRĀMA
 CROSSING OF THE GANGES ĀMRAPĀLĪ ILLNESS OF BUDDHA
 STAY AT VAISĀLĪ DEATH OF ŚĀRIPUTRA AND MAUDGALYĀYANA
 MEAL AT CUNDA'S AND CONSEQUENT SICKNESS ARRIVAL AT
 KUSINĀRĀ INSTRUCTIONS TO ĀNANDA CONVERSION OF SU-
 BHADRA PARINIRVĀNA CREMATION OF THE CORPSE PARTITION
 OF THE RELICS¹

When the Lord had reached his 79th year and was sojourning on the Ġḍhrakūṭa near Rājagrha, Ajātasatru intended making war upon the Vṛjians of Vaisālī. Before carrying his designs into the effect, he sent the Brahman Varṣakāra to the Buddha with his respectful greetings and the humble demand to be informed anent the issue of his undertaking. When the envoy had come into the presence of the Tathāgata, and delivered his message, the Master asked Ānanda whether the Vṛjians were living in concord, and whether they were virtuous and religious in their conduct. On the satisfactory answer of Ānanda, the Buddha turned to Varṣakāra and said "So long as the Vṛjians behave themselves in such a laudable way, their prosperity will increase and not decline." Then Varṣakāra intimated his conviction that the King of Magadha would be powerless against the Vṛjians and departed.

One day, after explaining to his disciples the merits of morality, mental concentration (*samādhi*) and wisdom, the Master said to Ānanda "Come, Ānanda, let us go to Ambalatthikā"². And the Lord went with a large company of monks to that place. After staying there for a short time, he proceeded to Nālandā, where he took up his abode in the Pāvārika Mango grove, repeating the lessons he had given on the Ġḍhrakūṭa.

From Nālandā the Lord proceeded to Pāṭali-grāma. There he pronounced in the rest house to the laity a discourse on the merits of the five moral precepts. Before leaving the village he predicted that one day it would become the mighty city of Pāṭaliputra, but at the same time that three great dangers would befall it³.

When the Lord came to the Ganges, the river was brimming. Whilst some were looking for boats, others for rafts, the Buddha vanished and at once stood with the whole company of monks on the opposite bank. He continued his journey to Koṭṭagrāma, further to Nādikā, everywhere repeating his discourse on morality, mental concentration and wisdom. From Nādikā he continued his journey to Vaisālī, where he sojourned at the Mango grove of Āmrapālī, teaching and exhorting his disciples⁴.

When the courtesan Āmrapālī heard that the Lord had arrived and was

similar, though not the same figure is Mālinī, reborn as the daughter of Kṛṣṇa, Mhv. I, pp. 300 ff.

¹ Chief source of the following narrative is the Mahāparinibbāna S. ed. by CHILDERS JRAS of 1874—1876, transl. by Prof. RHYS DAVIDS in SBE XI, in whose Intr. p. XXXV the parallel passages are collected, Chinese versions mentioned p. XXXVI ff. For the Tibetan versions see ROCKHILL op. c. p. 123 ff. Cp. BEAL SBE XIX, 250 ff. BIGANDET II, 1—95, HARDY M. of B. 343 ff. WINDISCH Māra und B. pp. 43—86.

² Between Rājagrha and Nālandā, see ED. MÜLLER in JPTS S. v.

³ At that time Sunidha (answering to a Skr. Sunitha) and Varṣakāra were building a fortress to check the Vṛjians, MPN I, 26, MV VI, 28, Ud VIII, 6. Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 127, note.

⁴ To this period may be referred the question of Visuddhimati to the Master in the Grove of Āmrapālī, related Mhv. II, 293.

four kinds of men are worthy of a Stūpa a Tathāgata, a Pratyeka-buddha, a disciple of the Tathāgata, and a Cakravartin¹

After these instructions Ānanda was painfully affected by the thought of his impending separation from the Master, and weeping he went into the Vihāra², but the Lord sent for him, comforted him, and praised his virtues in the presence of the brethren.

When the Lord had finished his discourse, Ānanda emitted the opinion that it would hardly become the dignity of the Tathāgata to die in so small a town situated in a waste tract of country, and that one of the 6 great cities Campā, Rājagṛha, Śrāvastī, Sāleta, Kausāmbī, or Benares³, would be a fitter place. But the Master showed him that Kusinārā, being in former times the royal city of Kusāvati, was the most becoming place. Thereupon he ordered Ānanda to go and inform the Mallas of Kusinārā that in the last watch of the night the final extinction of the Tathāgata would take place, and to invite them not to let pass the opportunity of seeing the Tathāgata in his last moments. The Mallas, on receiving the message, hastened to the place where the Lord was lying, and were admitted in his presence.

Now there lived at that time a heretical monk, named Subhadra (Subhadda). Having heard that the Sramana Gautama should attain to final extinction in the last watch of the night, he felt a longing to visit the Buddha. He went to the place where Ānanda was and asked for admittance. The disciple refused, out of care for the Master, but the latter ordered him to admit Subhadra, who was not come to annoy him, but from a desire of enlightenment. Subhadra accordingly came into the presence of the Lord, and after hearing an edifying discourse, more especially on the eightfold Path and the four stages of the path to Nirvāna, became a convert. He was the last disciple whom the Lord himself converted. In a very short time Subhadra reached Nirvāna⁴.

The last moments of the Tathāgata were taken up with exhortations to keep faithfully to the rules of the Order, which after his demise would be to them in his stead. Further he gave indications concerning their future behaviour, and asked them whether there was any one among the brethren who had some lingering doubt as to the Buddha, the Law, the Congregation, or the four stages. There was none, as the Master knew full well beforehand.

Then the Lord spoke these words to his brethren "Now, monks, I have nothing more to tell you but that all that is composed is liable to decay. Strive after salvation energetically!" These were the last words of the Tathāgata⁵.

Thereupon the Lord entered into the first stage of meditation (Dhyāna), from that he passed into the second, the third, the fourth, successively. Out of the fourth stage he entered into the stage of the infinity of space, thence into the stage of the infinity of thought, thence into the stage of nothingness, thence into the stage of neither consciousness nor unconsciousness, finally into the stage in which consciousness has wholly passed away⁶.

Then Ānanda said to Anuruddha "The Lord is dead, Anuruddha!"

¹ In Ang. N. I, p. 77 only two: a Tathāgata and a Cakravartin.

² It is not clear what is here meant with this term.

³ The 6 cities, though not named, also occur in Tib. L. 291. Cp. sannagari, Vārtt. on Pur. vii. 4, 22.

⁴ It is here said in Tib. I. 293 that Subhadra dies immediately after having attained Arhatship, so, too, Nov. II, 330. Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 138.

⁵ S. somewhat different in Nov. I, 341.

⁶ These stages are also represented as certain immaterial worlds. Cp. Tib. I. 292.

pork When the Lord had come and was seated, he took for himself the pork, leaving to the disciples the other food After the dinner he desired Cunda to bury what was left of the pork, because no one in the world could digest such food except the Tathāgata. Soon after it the Buddha was seized with a violent attack of dysentery On his way to Kusinārā¹ he felt extremely weak, and, wishing to sit down, he commanded Ānanda to spread out the robe for him, and to fetch him some water to drink Ānanda went to the stream which had just become muddy by passing carts, and found it to his astonishment clear and limpid² Gladly he returned to the Master, who drank of the water

At that time it happened that a young Malla, Pukkusa³, a disciple of Ālāra Kālāma's, passed the road from Kusinārā to Pāvā. On seeing the Lord, he approached him, and recorded how on a certain occasion Ālāra had proved by his example what incredible degree of composure and power of abstraction can be reached by one who has renounced the world The Tathāgata, having heard the story, told a much more wonderful case from his own experience, so that Pukkusa declared that now he had lost his faith in Ālāra, and became a convert to the true faith. Forthwith he directed somebody to fetch a pair of pieces of gold cloth. When the pair was brought, Pukkusa offered both pieces to the Lord, who took one for himself, the other for Ānanda⁴

After this occurrence the Master proceeded to the river Kakutthā, where he took a bath Then he crossed the river and went on, preaching, to the Mango grove, and thence to a grove in the Malla country, the Uṇḍavartana of Kusinārā, on the other side of the Hiraṇyavatī There between the twin Sāl trees a couch was spread by Ānanda, with the place for the head to the North, and the Lord laid himself down on his right side, like a lion, with one leg resting on the other⁵

The last hours before the Lord's Parinirvāṇa were spent by him in useful counsels and instructions to Ānanda Among other topics he spoke of the four places which the pious believer ought to visit with feelings of holy reverence the place where the Tathāgata is born, the place where he has reached perfect Enlightenment, the place where for the first time he proclaims the Law, the place of his final extinction He dilated on the merits of pilgrimage⁶ to those places and declared "They who shall die on such a pilgrimage, shall be reborn after death in the happy realms of heaven"

On the question of Ānanda what ceremonies were to be performed after his demise, he answered that the disciples should not trouble themselves about it, because there were enough believers in the highest classes of society who would not fail to honour the remains of the Tathāgata, in the same manner as one honours the remains of a Cakravartin And he described to Ānanda the ceremonies performed after the death of a Cakravartin He added that

¹ Skr Kusinagara, °nagarī, and Kuśanagara, see Pet Dict s. v.

² It is doubtful whether this stream is the Kakutthā or Kukkutthā, as HARDA M of B 356, BIGANDET II, 30, and ROCKHILL op c 134 have it We shall meet with the K anon as the river where Buddha bathed, cp. Ud VIII, 5 In Tib L 291 it is the Hiraṇyavatī where he bathes

³ Cp Tib L 291 The 'young' Malla must have been at least 65 years of age, his teacher having died 45 years ago

⁴ A little further on vs 52 of the text, the Buddha is said to be clad with both robes, herewith agrees Tib L 291

⁵ This is the posture of the images which represent Buddha's Nirvāṇa. — Cp for this passage and the sequel BEAL SBE. XIX, 286 ff

⁶ Cp Ang N II, p 120

"No, Ānanda, the Lord is not dead he has reached the stage of complete unconsciousness"

Now the Lord passed from the stage of complete unconsciousness into that of neither consciousness nor unconsciousness, thence into the stage of nothingness, thence into that of the infinity of thought, thence into that of the infinity of space, further into the 4th, 3d, 2d, 1st stage of meditation, successively. Then again he passed into the 2d stage, thence into the 3d, thence into the 4th stage of meditation. And immediately on passing out of that stage he was extinguished.

The death of the Lord was, attended with an earthquake and thunder-strokes. Brahmā Sahampati and Śakra, as well as Ānanda and Anuruddha uttered appropriate stanzas. Some of the monks who were not yet completely emancipated from passion wailed and lamented "Too soon has the Lord died! Too soon has the Light gone out in the world!" But others, more advanced, bore their loss with resignation, because they knew that all composite things are impermanent.

At the end of the night Anuruddha sent Ānanda to inform the Mallas of the Master's decease. When the Mallas, who then were assembled in the Council hall heard the tidings, they, with their wives and children, gave marks of deep sorrow, and ordered the attendants to gather in Kusinārā perfumes, garlands, and all sorts of musical instruments. When the mourning crowd had come to the spot where the body of the Lord lay in the Sāla grove, they past the day in paying honour to the remains of the Tathāgata with dancing, hymns and music. This was repeated on the following days until on the seventh day the corpse was carried by 8 Malla chieftains, among a rain of heavenly Mandārava flowers, to the shrine called Makuṭa-bandhana, where the funeral pile was raised.

When four Malla chieftains tried to set the pile on fire, they were not able to do so. In their amazement they asked Anuruddha the cause of that unexpected case. He informed them that the pile would not be set on fire until the arrival of Kāśyapa the Great, who was just travelling on the road from Pāvā to Kusinārā, with a company of monks. And, in fact, Kāśyapa was coming, as he had heard, from an Ājīvaka monk, who had picked up a Mandārava flower, that "the Śramana Gautama" died a week ago. Kāśyapa hastened to the spot where the funeral pile had been raised, and there he with his company ceremoniously walked thrice round the pile, and bowed down at the feet of the Lord¹. No sooner had this act of piety been performed, than the pile caught fire of itself².

As soon as the fire had consumed the body of the Tathāgata, with exception of the bones, and a rain from heaven had extinguished the flames, the Mallas paid honour to the relics with dancing, singing and music, with garlands and perfumes.

When Ajātasatru heard the tidings that the Lord had departed this life, he forwarded a claim for obtaining the possession of a portion of the relics. The Licchavis of Vaisālī asked for themselves the same prerogative, likewise the Sālyas of Kapilavastu³, the Bulis of Allakappa, the Koliyas of Rāmagrāma, the Mallas of Pāvā, and a Brahman of Vethadīpa, all of them promising to

¹ BIGANDET II, 88 has some details regarding the feet of Buddha, cp Mhv I, 67, where the feet are described as *cakravara-lakṣita*.

² A Northern account closely agreeing in Mhv I, 64 ff.

³ These had been exterminated by Vidūdabha, but in Buddhist writings the dead are apt to reappear as often as their presence is needed. The revival of the famous six Tīrthikas is a similar case in point.

state of not-knowing, of sleep. An allusion to this state of man is found in Lal V. p 458

ciraprasuptam imam lokam tamahskandhāvagunthitam |
bhavān prajñāpradīpena samarthah pratibodhitum ||

Man at first awaking enters into a state of half-consciousness, his mind is affected by vague impressions (*samskāras*) before he has reached the state of clear consciousness. Then the phenomena appear to him, and the activity of his organs of sense commences. By the contact of the organs with some exterior object (either real or ideal) a certain feeling or sensation is produced. Feeling leads to the wish (*trsnā*) of getting what seems desirable, and that wish, steadily increasing¹ produces a strong clinging and effort to bring about a state of things differing from the present state. So a new state begins, and immediately after the process of becoming, of transition, the new existence springs to light. That existence, having a beginning, must also have an end, which is ushered in, so to say, by all kinds of misery².

The Northern Buddhist know more than one explanation of the process. The next approach to the interpretation just proposed is that prevailing in the Kārmika school³. It can be formulated as follows: from false knowledge spring delusive impressions, from these, general notions, from them, particulars, from them, the six seats of the senses, from them, contact; from it, definite sensation, from it, desire, from it, embryonic existence, from it, actual physical existence, from it, all the distinctions of genus and species among animate things, from them, decay and death. According to another theory⁴ the series represents the history of human life, in twelve acts, a history beginning *ab ovo* or even earlier, and ending with decay and death. The root of all is Avidyā, i e the error of deeming transient things to be permanent, from error spring Samskāras, affections, temporary dispositions, as love, hate and infatuation, from them springs Vijñāna, incipient consciousness of the embryo, from this proceeds Nāmarūpam, i e the rudimentary body consisting of *nāman*, earth and the other three elements, and *rūpa*, form⁵. Thence proceed the Sadāyatana, organs of the senses, when the organs come in conjunction with Name-and-Form, there is Sparsa, contact. Thence follows Vedanā, feeling, sensation, then arises Trsnā, longing (for renewal of pleasant feeling and desire to shun what is painful). Hence Upādāna, effort, beginning of action, then Bhava, state (of merit or demerit). Then comes Jāti, birth, i e the aggregation of the 5 Skandhas. On birth will follow decay, death, etc.

A recent discovery⁶ among the frescoes of the caves of Ajanta has

| | | |
|------------|--------|------------|
| Avidyā | parall | Pradhāna |
| Samskāras | " | Buddhi |
| Vijñāna | " | Ahamkāra |
| Nāmarūpam | " | Tanmātrārā |
| Sadāyatana | " | Indriyāni |

¹ *Uṣṇā* also means "fuel".

² For a totally different translation and explanation see Prof RHYs DAVIDS and OLDENFELG in SBL XI, pp 75 ff, and the latter's "Buddha" (Engl transl p 226 ff), CHILDERS in 'Life and Essays of Colebrooke' II, p 453, BIGANDET I, 93. Cp also BRAL SBE. XIX, 161.

³ HODGSON, Ess p 79. The Nidānas with exception of the first and last term are called the 10 Karmans, Acts.

⁴ Mentioned by Govindānanda in the Tilā on Brāhma-Sūtra p 549.

⁵ HONG O, l c "thence proceeds an organised and definite, but archetypal body, the seat of the consciousness".

⁶ P. L. A. WADDELI, to whose paper "Buddha's Secret from a sixth century Ptolemaic commentary and Tibetan Tradition" in JRAS of 1894, p 367 and Buddha of T. 105—121, we refer the reader.

of mankind, exactly as in the Yoga doctrine¹. This connection of the Āryasatyas with medical science was apparently not unknown to the Buddhists themselves, for in Lal V p 448 we find immediately after the announcement of the discovery of the two formulas the significant words "*utpanno vaidyārājah pramocakah sarvaduḥkhebhyaḥ, pratisthāpako nirvānasukhe, nisannas Tathāgata-gaibhe Tathāgatamahādharma-rājāsane*" And again p 458

cirāturo jīvaloke kleśavādhīrapīḍite |
vaidyārāt tvaṃ samutpannah sarvavādhīpramocakah ||

The second formula, the Concatenation of causes and effects, the twelve-fold Pratītyasamutpāda or causal production, otherwise termed "the 12 Nidānas (causes)" is intended to lay bare the root of evil, and stands to the 4 Satyas in the same relation as Pathology, (Nidāna or Nidāna-sāstra), to the whole system of medical science. The terms of the series are *avidyā*, ignorance, *saṃskārās*, impressions, *viññāna* clear consciousness, *nāmarūpa*, name-and-form², *saḍāyatana*, the six organs of sense, *sparsa*, contact (of the senses with exterior objects), *vedanā*, feeling, *trsnā*, desire, *upādāna*, clinging, effort³, *bhava*, becoming, beginning of existence, *jāti*, birth, existence, *jarāmaraṇam*, *soka-paridevanaduḥkha-daurmanasyo-pyāsāḥ*, old age and death, sorrow, lamentation, pain, grief, despondency⁴.

It seems probable that the whole series, in which the difference between the *post hoc* and the *propter hoc* is utterly ignored, is, like the corresponding Yoga tenet, stating *avidyā* to be the ultimate cause of *duḥkha*⁵, an imitation or adaptation of some ancient cosmogonical myth, poetically describing the creation, and the destruction of the world, i. e. the successive stages in the daily phaenomena, beginning when light emerges out of darkness, the world out of chaos, up to the end of day after its troubles. A similar adaptation is the Pratītya-sarga of the Sāṅkhya, the very name of which suggests some connection with the Pratītya-samutpāda. The connection, however, is not such as to warrant the assumption of a mutual dependence between the Buddhist and the Sāṅkhya series, we only surmise that both systems derive from a common remote source⁶.

When we try to connect the twelvefold formula with cosmogonical notions, we arrive at the following conclusions. *Avidyā*, ignorance, is the

¹ E g in Yogasūtra II, 15, Comm. "vathā cikitsāsāstram caturvūham rogo, rogahetur, ārogaṃ, bhīṣajam itī, evaṃ idam aṇi sāstram caturvūham eva, tad vathā samsārāḥ, samsārahetur, mokṣo, mokṣopāya itī. Tatraḥ duḥkhabāhulāḥ samsāro hevaḥ, pradhānapurusāḥ samvogo heva hetuḥ, samvogsāntīvantīki nirvṛtiḥ hīnam, hānopāyah samvagdarsanam." Cp Śrīmad Sangr p 180. Hence follows that the activity of *līdalī*, which is being an evolution of *prākṛtāna* belongs to *prākṛt*, ceases at the *nirvṛti* of the union in other words the activity of the *Buddhic* ceases at *Nirvāna* or *Nirvṛti* (which looks like an intentional substitution for *Nirvṛti*).

² I. e. all physical and mental phaenomena, the same as *pañcāca* S Nip p 95, and consequently = *māyā*. In an idealistic system like Buddhism the phaenomena are, of course, no realities. Since every human body consists of an aggregate of physical and mental elements, of the 5 Skandhas, such a being can be designed as *nāmarūpa*.

³ The definition Mayh N I, p 266 is *jā'adanāru'andā, taḥ upādānam*, as to the 4 Upādānas, see there p 66, cp p 51, and Samy N II, p 3.

⁴ M V I 1 Lal V 442 ff. Lotus p 109, and the references in CHILDERS s v *patcca-samutpāda* and Dharmā S XLII, note.

⁵ Yogas II 15 "duḥkham eva sarvaṃ vivekinah, on which the Comment "tad asya mātato duḥkhasamudbhavaḥ *pratyakhyam* aṇyā, cp II, 4 "avidyā līcetram uttareṇim".

⁶ It is not in the Pratītya-sarga, but in the Sāṅkhya theory of creation that there is a partial parallelism to be discovered between the Buddhist and the Sāṅkhya system, as follows.

brought to light a picture which portrays the Nidānas in concrete form. This picture, supplemented by its Tibetan versions and its explanation by the Lamas, shows unmistakably a diagram of Human Life. This agrees with the theory known to Govindānanda, notwithstanding discrepancies in the rendering of some terms in the Wheel of Life. Whether we may see in it "a complete authentic account of human life from the absolute standpoint of the earliest Buddhist philosophy"¹ does not seem to be beyond all doubt. This much, however, is plain that the purport of the Pratītya-samutpāda is to show how all evil, death &c ultimately springs from Avidyā. Formally this does not differ from the Yoga axiom "Avidyā is the germ from which the whole mass of evil proceeds", but the sentiment underlying the phrase is another. For the Yoga philosopher has a craving for permanency, he is a *sāsvata-vādin*. Hence all that is impermanent and changeable is to him an evil², and therefore he seeks after true knowledge, the right insight that the *purusa* is in reality not affected by its union with *prakṛti*, and that it is only *avidyā*, the wrong notion, about that union which is the cause of evil and grief.

The two fundamental formulas, to which may be added the stanza "*Ye dhammā hetuppabhavā*"³, do not presuppose the belief in retribution and rebirth, the Karman theory, nor do they contain anything decidedly opposed to it. The same can not be said of the Buddhist doctrine regarding the Ātman, self, soul, individuality.

A concise and clear exposition of the three principal contending theories regarding Ātman is found in Pugg. P. p. 38⁴. These theories are the *Sassatavāda*, the *Ucchedavāda*, and the doctrine of Buddha. The first holds that the soul is truly existing, both in this life and in the life to come, the second, that the soul is truly existing, but only in this life, the Buddha teaches that soul is not truly existing, neither in this life, nor in the life to come⁵.

The categorical and absolute denial of an *ātman* is evidently in conflict with the common Hindu view of *karman*, which is based upon the assumption of the existence of a soul. Therefore the Buddhists could not adopt the theory in their own system without modifications. The shape which the dogma has received under their hands is admirably described by CHILDERS⁶: "When a man dies the khandhas of which he is constituted perish, but by the force of his Kamma a new set of khandhas instantly starts into existence, and a new being appears in another world, who though possessing different khandhas and a different form is in reality identical with the man just passed away, because his Kamma is the same. Kamma then is the link that preserves the

¹ WADDELL op. c. p. 370. Curious is the interpretation of *bhava*. It is "pictured by a married woman, and the Lāmas explain the picture by saying that she is the wife of the individual whose life history is being traced." Cp. the phrase *tanhā janeti purisaṃ* Samy. N. I, p. 37. This explains, to a certain extent, how *saññananā* and *janikā*, Skt. *janikā* (Lal. V. 541) "natural impulse" are nearly synonymous with *tanhā*, Dh. Sangam. 1059, where *bhava*, however is not taken in a realistic or material acceptation, as may be inferred from 1312, where *bhavatanhā* is explained as "*yo bhavesu bhavarchando*", and *bhavādutthi* 1313 as "*bhavussati attā ca loka cātu eva rūpā dūtthi*".

² The phrase *jad amecam dukkham* is Buddhist also, e. g. Samy. N. II, p. 244.

³ So above p. 25.

⁴ Cp. Digh. N. I, pp. 12 ff., 35 ff. and Samy. N. III, p. 205.

⁵ CHILDERS s. v. *ucchedo* has the following remark: "This doctrine was held in great abhorrence by the Buddhists, being directly antagonistic to the whole spirit and scheme of Buddhism." This is not very clear. If the *ucchedavāda*, admitting the existence of the soul, albeit only for this life, strikes at the root of the transmigration theory, then Buddhism, denying the existence of soul altogether, does so with double force.

⁶ Dict. s. v. *khandho*.

we are enabled to recognize the object. *Samskāras* are affections, temporary mental or moral dispositions, having their motive in *vedanā*, to them belong the *klesas* (defiling passions¹) as love, hatred, &c., the *upaklesas* (secondary *klesas*), as pride, conceit &c. piety and impiety².

The aggregation of the five Skandhas constitute the *pudgala*, *puggala*, what we would call the individual but what in the idealistic system of Buddhism is a being without real individuality. Although the Skandhas constitute the Pudgala, it is explicitly asserted that neither separately nor conjointly they are the Pudgala³.

The cause of the aggregation of the Skandhas, i.e. of birth and rebirth, is Karman. Hence it is said "It is Name-and-Form which is reborn" We have seen that Nāma-rūpa is coextensive with the 5 Skandhas⁴. The passage through a succession of existences, transmigration, bears the usual name of Samsāra.

The Karman is supposed to have no beginning, but it *can* have an end. The means of attaining that end, of destroying the working of Karman is the Eightfold Path, as the Master set forth in his first discourse⁵.

According to the stage one has reached in one's course towards Deliverance, Nirvāna, there is a fourfold division. Those who are walking in this path of Sanctification in four stages are called respectively Srotaāpanna, Sakṛdāgāmin, Anāgāmin, Arhat (Pāli Sotāpanna, Sakadāgāmin, Anāgāmin, Arahā), and with a common designation Śrāvaka, Sāvaka, disciple. Each of the stages or path-divisions is subdivided into a higher and a lower degree, the *mārga*, *magga* and its *phala*, result, fruition⁶.

The Srotaāpanna is he who has entered the first stage (*srotaāpatti*, *sotapatti*) the neophyte. He has got rid of the first three bonds of human passion, *samyojana*⁷ the doors of the states of punishments, *apāya*, are shut for him.

The Sakṛdāgāmin is so termed because he will once be reborn in the world of men. He is not only free from the first three bonds, but has in addition reduced to a minimum *rāga*, affection, *dveṣa*, P. *dosa*, hatred, and *moha* infatuation⁸.

The Anāgāmin is he who has freed himself from the first five or lower

¹ Dharmas. LXVI, note

² The number in Dharmas. I. XV is twentyfour, other sources as Pugg. P. II, 1—9 give only twenty, see Dharmas. I. c. note

³ Mil. P. 25 F. cp. 61 where the expression *ebacco puggalo* may not unaptly be rendered with "nobody", but in an idealistic, i.e. nihilistic sense.

⁴ The process of rebirth is going on, is minutely expounded Mil. P. 43, 72, 77.

⁵ See above p. 23. The Pāli terms are *ammī-sutthi*, *s-saṅkappa*, *s-vācā*, *s-kāma-rāga*, *s-tijā*, *s-sāma*, *s-sati*, *s-amādhī*, in Skt. *samyag-dṛṣṭi*, *s-saṅkalpa*, *s-vācā*, *s-samrāga*, *s-tijā*, *s-sāma*, *s-sati*, *s-samādhī*. Definitions Dh. Sang. 297—304. Cf. Burnouf, In. p. 519. The Fivefold Path, *pañcāryaṣṭa magga* comprises Nos. 1, 2, 6, 7 and 8 of the Eight. Dh. Sang. p. 21.

⁶ See CHILDERS. v. *mārga* and *phala*, cp. LUCIENET I, 153. For the four saints and their characteristics see Vol. §§ 46, 48, and cp. BRILL Cat. p. 191, cp. MUSEE LACORDAIRE I 217 f., where sectarian views also are noticed.

⁷ *saṃyojana* or *saṃyojanā*, fetters or the heresy of individuality, *zattucchā*, scepticism and *attādiṭṭhi*, observance of superstitious rites. Ang. N. II, p. 238, Dh. Sang. 1002—1003. Dharmas. I. XVIII. There are several classes of Srotaāpannas, the lowest is the *paṇḍita*. He becomes 7 times a monk, called *apāriddhacārīcrama*, P. *apāriddhacārīcrama*, Vol. § 46. CHILDERS s. v. *prama*, *pañcāryaṣṭa*, P. *pañcāryaṣṭa*, one who has become 2 or 3 times, Pugg. P. p. 16, Ang. N. p. 233, Vol. I. c. Cp. Dharmas. Ch. II, note.

⁸ *Sakṛdāgāmin* is *Ekasāra*, corrupted in Skt. to *Ekasāra*, Pugg. P. p. 16, Ang. N. I 233—234.

2 THE ELEMENTS OF EXISTENCE KARMAN THE ROAD TO DELIVERANCE

Every organized being consists of Name and Form. The former denotes all mental or internal phenomena, the latter, all physical or external phenomena¹. *Nāman* generally includes four of the five Skandhas, viz. *vedanā*, feeling, *saññā*, notion, *samskāras*, mental dispositions, and *viññāna*, clear consciousness, discrimination. *Rūpa* comprehends the four elements (*mahābhūtān*) earth, water, fire, air, and every form springing from them².

It appears from this enumeration that *Nāmarūpa* and the 5 Skandhas are coextensive terms. The definition of the mental Skandhas is attended with considerable difficulties, owing to the ambiguousness of most terms, and the loose way in which they are used. Not to go farther than the Pāli texts, we see how *saññā*, notion or first perception, and *vedanā*, feeling, sensation, form each a separate Khandha and at the same time occur as two subdivisions of the Samkhāra-kkhandha. This, however unlogical, is not inexplicable, provided we do not assign to Samkhāra the meaning of "discrimination", as HARDY has done. The first of the 52 Samkhāras is *phassa*, touch, contact, whereas the sentiments as fear, joy, shame &c are likewise Samkhāras, which would be impossible if the term had the meaning assigned to it by HARDY³. Samkhāras are, in our opinion, passing impressions, mental dispositions, comprising both intellectual affections and sentiments. Hence the first step in the line of Samkhāras is *phassa*, contact⁴, the second *vedanā*, feeling, the third *saññā*, notion (e.g. of different colours), *cetanā*, thought, intention, *manasikāra*, attention, *jīvitindriya*, vitality⁵, *cittakaggatā*, concentration of the mind, *vitakka*, consideration, *vicāra*, deliberation, and so on⁶.

Viññāna, clear consciousness, has 89 subdivisions, and comprises clear consciousness of what is transmitted by the organs of seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, touch, and the sixth sense, *manas*, farther the clear consciousness or discrimination of what is good, bad, or indifferent. In the latter case the term denotes spontaneous or instinctive moral discrimination⁷.

The N definition of the four mental Skandhas⁸ is, shortly formulated, as follows. *Viññāna* is clear consciousness of what is going on in our interior. From it in combination with the Rūpaskandha springs *vedanā*, feeling of what is pleasant, painful, &c. *Saññā* is the distinct notion of an object, by which

¹ Cp. Satipatha-Brāhmaṇa XIV, 11, 4, 3.

² MV I, 6, 36. Dh Sang 1309 adds a fifth, viz. *asankhatā dhātu*. In Samv. N II, p. 3 the four Skandhas are *vedanā*, *saññā*, *phassa*, and *manasikāra*. The usual N enumeration of the 5 Skandhas is *rūpa*, *vedanā*, *saññā*, *samskāra*, *viññāna*, see BURNOLF Intr. 511, but Śāṅkara on Brāhmaṇa S II, 2, 18, Dharmas S XXII, and Sarvad Sang p. 20 follow a different order, a circumstance connected with the variance in the definitions of the terms. — A scholastic enumeration of the twenty-eight fold Rūpakhandha occurs in Vis M, see CHILDERS s. v. *rūpam*. — On the 18 Dhātus, principles or properties of primary substances, see Dharmas S XXV and the references there. How these are connected and how unconnected with each of the 5 Skandhas, see Dhātuk P p. 2, cp. p. 51 f.

³ In Vvu § 104 *saññā* &c are simply called *cautankā dharmā*, mental conditions.

⁴ Somewhat differently Mil P 60 ff.

⁵ Cp. Dh Sang 295.

⁶ Abhidhamma Sangaha, cited by CHILDERS Dict p. 455 for the whole series, Dh Sang 338. Minor differences in the terms and in the order may be left unnoticed. The list in Vvu l. c. contains 94 terms, cp. HARDY M of B 404 ff. Dharmas S distinguishes Cittasampravuktasamskāras, 40 in number, from 12 Cittavipravuktasamskāras XXX, XXXI.

⁷ The enumeration of the subdivisions in HARDY M of B 419 ff. Cp. the extracts from Vis M and Abhidh Sang with CHILDERS p. 577. The list much shorter Vvu § 105.

⁸ Sarvad Sang p. 20.

far it may be extolled as a blissful state, and as eternal, *amṛta* (*amata*) Does it imply a complete cessation of consciousness? It does, of course if we draw the logical conclusions from the fundamental principles underlying the creed¹ But not every one draws logical conclusions, and it would seem that even in the bosom of the Congregation there reigned some uncertainty anent the point in question. This would not be very wonderful. When the brethren repeatedly heard how the Buddha was conscious of all occurrences in his former births, some of them may involuntarily have been led to believe that memory, consciousness survives after death. We may understand how in order to prevent fruitless discussions among the brethren the Buddha is represented to have laid down the rule that the question "Does the Tathāgata exist after death, or does he not?" is one of those questions that must be set aside as useless and remain unanswered²

Practically, Nirvāna means a happy death without fear of rebirth. If so, how then can the Buddha be said to have conquered Māra? Because he conquered, not, indeed, physical death, but the abject fear of death. The means of bringing about that result, consists in representing death as something extremely blissful.

3 SPIRITUAL EXERCISES

The striving for Nirvāna requires a good deal of constant spiritual exercise meditation and contemplation, such as with insignificant variations are practised by all Indian ecstasies

As a preparatory to soaring into the higher regions of thought, must be considered the *bhāvanā*, cultivation, cherishing of the sentiments of *maitrī*, benevolence, *karuṇā* compassion, *mudita*, cheerfulness, and *upeksā*, indifference, equanimity. These four Bhāvanās, identical in name and character with those of all Yogins, are otherwise termed *brahmacāhāra*, living in the spiritual world, and P. *appamaññā*, Skr. *apramāṇa*³

Sometimes a fifth Bhāvanā is added to the four Brahmavihāras, to wit the *Asubhabhāvanā*, realisation of the loathsomeness of the body, but in this case *bhāvanā* means conception, realisation synonymous terms are *asubhasaññā* and *asubhapratyaveśa*⁴. There are 10 *Asubhas*, notions arising from the contemplation of a dead body, the names in P. are *uddhumātaka*, bloated, *vilālaka* blackish, *vipubbaka*, festering, *vicchaddaka* fissured from decay, *vilbhātaka* gnawed by animals, *vilkhittaka*, scattered, *hatavikkhittaka*,

¹ We refer to the exhaustive and masterly article *nibbāna* in CHILDERS Dict. Cp. also the Buddh. Nirvāna. FRANKFURTER, Buddhist Nirvāna and the Noble Eightfold Path, JRAS of 1880, PIERCE DAVIDS B. 14. — For the Mahāvānist the idea of Nirvāna is a mere delusion, as we shall see in the sequel.

² Majjh. N. I, 426 ff., 484. Sam. N. II, p. 222, Mil. P. 145. It is not easy to reconcile, unless by sophisms, this agnosticism with the words spoken by the Tathāgata in Sam. N. II, p. 232. "Paggaleṃ passāmi param maraṇā Niravari upapannan". And how to explain another passage, Sam. N. III, p. 109, "here the theorist that the 'hīnāsavo' acc. to the 'pāram maraṇā' is rejected as being heterodox?"

³ Def. on the Yogas I, 33.

⁴ Sam. N. II, p. 130, Nip. p. 89, Vin. S. 72, Lal. V. 35, 371, Jāt. Vāḍ. XXXII. Cf. also the P. derivation of the P. term from *appamāṇa*, as appears from *nellam cāra appamāṇa* Sam. Nip. I. c. *appamāṇa amāra* = *appamāṇā* Ang. N. I, p. 21. *appamāṇa amāra* Sam. N. II, 54, cp. Majjh. N. I, p. 283. We have also *apamāṇa* Sam. N. I, p. 21.

⁵ Sam. N. I, p. 424, Vin. S. 32, Tī. c. Lal. V. 36, CHILDERS s. *asubha*.

(*avarabhāgiya*, P *orambhāgiya*) bonds¹ and will not be reborn on earth or in a Kāmaloka, but in a Brahmaloka.

The Arhat is he in whom the causes of moral infection² are exhausted, the impurities washed away, the Klesas³ rejected, who has fulfilled his task, laid down his burden, removed all bonds⁴, obtained the four kinds of transcendent faculties⁵. He is no more subject to rebirth⁶.

One who, without having entered the first stage, is in possession of those conditions upon which the commencement of sanctification immediately ensues, is called a Gotrabhū⁷. Such a previous stage, which is, so to say, the court-yard of Holiness, is known to the N Buddhists by the name of Gotrabhūmi⁸.

Those who are walking in the four paths in their progress towards final beatitude rank as true Āryas in contradistinction to the *profanum vulgus*, the Pṛthagjanas. Their power far surpasses that of common mortals, which is nothing strange, as the notion that transcendent power is attainable by man is prevalent among Hindu sects, the Yogin more especially is, to vulgar apprehension, a worker of miracles. Further on we shall have occasion to revert to this subject.

The object of the Ārya is to reach Nirvāna⁹. It is impossible within a short compass to refer to all the opinions emitted on the subject, it would fill a volume. We will, therefore, limit ourselves to the main points.

In the first place we must distinguish between the secondary Nirvāna and the final or absolute one. The former Nirvāna, attained by Arhats in this life, is virtually the same as the Jīvanmukti of the Vedāntins. It is specified by the addition of *upādisesa* or *sa-upādisesa* in Pāli, *upādhisesa* with the N Buddhists¹⁰, i.e. having the residuum of a substratum.

The second or final, absolute Nirvāna (*nirūpadhisesa*, P *anupādisesa*) — in case of the Buddha usually styled Parinirvāna — can only be reached after death. By it all suffering ceases, completely and for ever, and in so

¹ To wit the 3 specified above, with *kāmarāga*, attachment, and *patigha*, antipathy, Majjh N I, p 432, Ang N II, p 238, somewhat different in Dh Sang 1460 Cp Div 533, 553, Vyu § 109 — Five classes of Anāgāmins are enumerated Pugg P p 16 f Vjūt § 46, cp CHILDERS s v *anāgāmi*.

² *Asrava*, P *āsava*. Their number is three *kāma*, *bhava* and *avijjāsava*, or four the foregoing with addition of heresy, BURNOLF Intr 823, CHILDERS s v *āsava*.

³ I.e. besetting evil propensities of the mind, 10 in number, enumerated Dh Sang 1548, with some variations in Lal V p 59 (where we have to read *rāgo* for *rogo*), 348 (r *rāgo*, and add *mraśa*), 349.

⁴ Not only the lower, but also the higher (*ūrdhvaabhāgiya*, P *uddhambhāgiya*), see CHILDERS s v *samyojana*, the list in Dh Sang 1460 shows variations Cp Vyu § 109.

⁵ *Pāṭisambhūḍā*, more about this term in the sequel.

⁶ The character and qualities of the four degrees of Sants are fully described in Mil P 102 ff Cp Vyu § 46 — The fourfold division of Yogins is Prāthamakālpika, Madhubbūmika, Prājñāyotis, and Atikrāntabhāvanīva, Yogas III, 50, Comm.

⁷ Pugg P p 13, cp CHILDERS s v.

⁸ WASSILIEF B 239.

⁹ Synonymous terms are Nirvṛti, Nibbuti, Amṛta, Amata, and others. The terms are known also to other Indian sects, with a different shade of meaning. The usual term in the Yoga is Kavalva, in the Vedānta, Mukti, Moksa, in the Nāṭya, Apavarga, in the system of the Śaiva-monks, Duhkhānta. In Caraka IV, 5 occur as synonymous with "final rest" *sānti*, *amṛta* *brahman*, *nirvāna*.

¹⁰ Vyu § 95, BURNOLF Intr 590, CHILDERS s v *upādisesa*, where the remark that *nirūpadhi* is with the S Buddhists a distinctive epithet of the Arhat, must be coupled with what the same author says s v *upadhi* "the term *nirūpadhi* may also be applied to one who has attained anupādisesa-nibbāna, has ceased to exist". Now the N Buddhists use *nirūpadhi* exactly in the latter sense, and yet they are blamed by the author! On the confusion in Intr p 30 see above p 50.

It results from the foregoing that the four degrees of Dhyāna, P Jhāna, abstract meditation, though nominally, excluded from the system of Kamma-tthānas, are nothing else but the four lower stages of ecstasy. Since the exercise of Dhyāna is confessedly anterior to Buddhism¹, we content ourselves with producing the following passage from the racy description by CHILDERS²: "The priest — concentrates his mind upon a single thought. Gradually his soul becomes filled with a supernatural ecstasy and serenity, while his mind still reasons upon and investigates the subject chosen for contemplation, this is the first Jhāna. Still fixing his thoughts upon the same subject, he then frees his mind from reasoning and investigation, while the ecstasy and serenity remain, and this is the second Jhāna. Next, his thoughts still fixed as before, he divests himself of ecstasy, and attains the third Jhāna, which is a state of tranquil serenity. Lastly, he passes to the fourth Jhāna, in which the mind, exalted and purified, is indifferent to all emotions, alike of pleasure and of pain." Each of the first three Dhyānas is subdivided into three degrees, the inferior, the medial and the superior meditation, the attainment of the first Dhyāna gives the power of working miracles, *iddhi*, P *iddhi*. In general the Dhyānas secure access to the sixteen corporeal (*rūpa*) Brahmaloḥas, the peculiar *loka* being determined by the degree of Dhyāna attained³. It is, consequently, plain that the 4 Dhyānas represent a lower stage of ecstatic contemplation than the 4 Ārūpas.

Sometimes there is question of 5 Dhyānas (*pañcāṅgikam jhānam*). They differ in no essential point from the 4 Dhyānas, the second stage being separated into two⁴.

In connection with Dhyāna we have to speak of Samādhi, properly a state of most intense concentration and absorption⁵, but in Buddhist writings a wider term. There are different sets of Samādhi. The 3 Samādhis are Savitakka-savicāra-, Avitakka-avicāramatta-, and Avitakka-avicāra. Three others are Suññata, void, Animitta, groundless, reasonless, and Appanīhita, without fixed purpose⁶, to which correspond 3 states of emancipation⁷. A set of 4 Samādhis is designated by the qualifications of *hānabhāgiya*, leading to rejection, *thitabhāgiya*, l. to firmness, *visesabhāgiya*, l. to distinction, and *mbhaddhabhāgiya* l. to excellence⁸.

In Samādhi one distinguishes two degrees, the inferior called Upacāra-samādhi, and the superior, Appanā-S, i. e. initiatory, and penetrating, thoroughly grasping⁹.

The original meaning of Samādhi is such that any profound pious meditation can be brought under that head. Hence it is not to be wondered at that the Mahāyānists with their ritualistic propensities invented a series of Samādhis

¹ See e. g. Jāt. I, p. 58, Mhv. I, 228, Lal. V. 147, Buddhac. XII, vs. 49. Cp. Yogas. III, 2.

² Dict. p. 169. Original text e. g. in Majjh. N. I, pp. 21, 117, 455, Lal. V. 147, 430, Mhv. I, 228, Vvu. § 67. Cp. Buddhac. XII, vs. 49 ff.

³ The names of these Lokas in the sequel.

⁴ In Dh. Sūg. § 3 the degrees are *avikkāma*, *vicāra*, *śānta*, *sukha*, and *cittas'ekaggatā*.

⁵ Mil. P. 38, Yogas. III, 3, Sarvad., S. 164.

⁶ Ang. N. I, p. 290, Mil. P. 337, where the 6 Samādhis are qualified as one of the 7 Reasons of the Buddha. — Cp. Yogas. I, 17 f.

⁷ Dh. P. vs. 92 and Comm., CHILDERS Dict. p. 270. The three Vimoksas or Vimuktis are *Avitakka*, *Avicāra*, *Animitta*, *apranīhitam*. Cp. Dharma S. IXXII, note.

⁸ *Avitakka* § 55 *Avitakka* *lāgha*, synonymous with *avikkāma*, *vicāra*, *śānta*, and *sukha*. Cp. Dh. Sūg. § 3. WASSILIEF L. 130, 246, Pāli *umhāga* = *samānāteja*, I. V. p. 208. *umhāga*, highly proficient brilliant Mañj. N. I, p. 132.

⁹ Dh. P. I. V. 257. The same division applies to the Kamma-tthānas.

injured and scattered, *lohitaka*, bloody, *pulavaka*, full of worms, *atthika*, bones¹

The ten Asubhas, as well as the four Brahmavihāras, belong to the 40 philosophical Operations or Kammatṭhānas² These Operations include the tenfold Kasina, a kind of mystic Bhāvanā The ten objects on which the attention at this operation must be fixed are earth, water, fire, air, blue, yellow, red, white, light, and ether or space³ The same rite is practised by the the N Buddhists, who term it *krtsnāyatana*, object or base of Krtsna The ten modes of operation are given in the following order *nīla*-, *pīta*-, *lohita*-, *avadāta*-, *prthivī*-, *ap*-, *tejas*-, *vāyu*-, *ākāsa*-, and *viññāna-krtsnāyatana*⁴

The 40 Operations further comprise the 10 kinds of *anusmṛti*, P *anussati*, recollection, constant thinking on the Buddha, the Dharma, the Sangha, morality, liberality (*cāga*, *tyāga*), the gods, death, the body, the regulation of inspiration and expiration (*ānāpānasmṛti*), and quietude⁵

The exercise of Ānāpānasmṛti consists in fixing the mind intently on one's own breathing, in connection with certain set subjects of reflection, it is a highly valued kind of Samādhi⁶

Four species of Kammatṭhāna are termed Āruppa, belonging to the 4 incorporeal Brahmāloka *Ākāsānañcāyatana*, place of infinity of space, *Viññānañcāy*, p of infinity of clear consciousness, *Ākiñcaññāy*, p of nothingness, *Nevaśaṇṇānāsaññāy*, p of neither-consciousness-nor-unconsciousness, in Skr Ākāsānantyāyatana, Viññānānantyāy, Ākiñcanyāy, Naivaśaṇṇā-nāsaññāyatana⁷ Those who by dint of ecstatic meditation soar into those regions, have reached a very high standpoint, there remaining but one superior the *Saññāvedayitanirodha*, Skr *Saññāvedaitanirodha*, cessation of consciousness, the same have arrived at the corresponding exalted states of *vimoksa*, P *vimokha*, emancipation, deliverance⁸ There is, of course, not much that is particularly Buddhist in this system For we know that Ārāja Kālāma was proficient in the state of Nothingness, and Udraka Rāmaputra in that of Neither-consciousness-nor-unconsciousness, but they were surpassed by the Buddha, who attained to cessation of consciousness⁹

¹ Dh Sang 264. The corresponding terms Vyu § 52 are *vinilaka*, *vipūyaka*, *vipaḍumaka*, *vyādhimāṭaka*, *vilohitaka*, *vilhādutaka*, *vikūṣṭhaka*, *vidagdhaka*, and *asthi sañjñā* This list counts one term less than the P Asubhas, for a detailed account of which see HARDY E M 268

² Enumerated from Vis M by CHILDERS s v They are included in the more extensive series of 108 Dharmāloka-mukhāras in Lal V 34 ff

³ See CHILDERS s v *kasina* In Majjh N I, 423 we find the 5 elements, earth, water, fire, air, and ether or space as objects of *pathaviśamā bhāvanā* &c The 5 elements with Viññāna constitute the 6 Dhātus, see Dharma S LVIII, note The following bhāvanāntas I c are *metta*, *karuṇā*, *muditā*, *upekkhābhāvanā*, then *asubha*, further *anuccasaññā*, finally *ānāpāna-sati*

⁴ Vyu § 72 The *viññāna-k* instead of *ālola k* recurs in a Pāli source, Sangiti s, see CHILDERS l c and HARDY E M 252 ff for a more detailed description

⁵ Ang N I, 42 Out of these 10 the first six are given by CHILDERS s v *anussati*, likewise in Lal V 34, Vyu § 51, Dharma S LIV, note.

⁶ For the details of this mystic operation we refer to Majjh N I, p 425, S Vibh I, p 70, Vyu § 53 (where the term is *ānāpānabhāvanāvidhi*), HARDY E M 267 ff Cp WASSILIEF B 139

⁷ Vyu §§ 68, 119, BURNOUR Lotus p 811, HARDY E M 261 Cp Majjh N I, p 455

⁸ Majjh N I, p 456, cp p 296, Vyu § 70, Dharma S LIX, the form *Saññāvedayitā* in Mhv I, 126 — In some passages we meet with a fourfold *ceto-vimutti* mental emancipation, viz *appamāṇā*, *ākiñcaññā*, *saññatā*, and *animuttā* c, Majjh. N I, p 297, Ang N I, p 4, in others, five, see CHILDERS s v *vimutti* The *cittavimutti* in the Yoga is threefold, Yogas II, 27, Comm

⁹ Majjh N I, p 165, Lal V 295, 306, Buddhac XII, vs 63, 83

Nirmānaratus, 6 the Parinirmita-vasavartins¹. These six Devalokas constitute with the world of men, of Asuras, of Pretas, the animal kingdom and the hells, the eleven Kāmalokas²

The second region, that of Rūpa, or more accurately the Rūpa-brahmaloka — for Rūpaloka in a wider sense includes the Kāmaloka — is divided into sixteen sections the abodes of as many classes of gods who are free from *kāma*. Beginning from below we have: 1 Brahmapārisajjas, 2 Brahmapurohitas, 3 Mahābrahmas, 4 Parittābhas, 5 Appamānābhas, 6 Ābhassaras, 7 Parittasubhas, 8 Appamānasubhas, 9 Subhakinnas, 10 Vehapphalas, 11 Asaññasattas, 12 Avihas, 13 Atappas, 14 Sudassas, 15 Sudassins, 16 Añanithas³. The abodes of 1—3 are attained by those who exercise the three degrees of the first Dhyāna, severally. The next three by proficient in the second Dhyāna, the next three by the adepts in the third Dhyāna, 10 and 11 are assigned to the fourth Dhyāna, and the remaining five to the Anāgāmins⁴.

The Northern texts contain nearly the same names. The first group is made up of Brahmakāyikas, Brahmapārisadyas, Brahmapurohitas, Mahābrahmas⁵, the second, of Parittābhas, Apramānābhas and Ābhāssaras, the third, of Parittasubhas, Apramānasubhas, and Subhakritsnas, the fourth, of Anabhakras, Punvapravasas, and Vṛhatphalas⁶. The last five are Avṛhas, Atapas, Sudrsas, Sudarsanas, and Akaniṣṭhas⁷.

Higher than the Rūpabrahmaloka is the Arūpabr, divided into four degrees which bear the same names as the Āruppa-kammatthānas⁸.

The very lowest of the thirtyone abodes of living beings are the hells or places of punishment (*naraka*, *niraya*). The principal hells are eight in number and known by the names of Sañjīva, Kālasūtra, Sanghāta, Raurava, Mahāraurava, Tapana, Pratāpana, and the very deepest, Avīci⁹. Apart from these there is the Lokāntarika hell, already mentioned, and many minor hells. In the old system of the N. Buddhists there are besides the eight hot hells just enumerated as many cold hells. Arbuda, Nirarbuda, Atata, Hahava, Huhava, Utpala, Padma, and Mahāpadma¹⁰, in the Pāli canon we meet with the same and a few more. Atata, Abbuda, Nirabbuda, Ahaha, Ababa, Kumuda, Uppalaka, Sogandhika, Pundarika, and Paduma¹¹. In later N. works the number of hells is still greater¹².

¹ Lal. V. 170, Divv. 200, BURNOLF Intr. 212. The gods are longlived, *āṭṭhāyika*, but not immortal, Ang. N. II. 33. The same view is common enough among Hindus, e. g. Viśiṣṭavalkya Dharmaś. III, 10, Yogas. II, 5, Comm.

² Ang. N. § 156 only eight, to wit the worlds of 6 kinds of gods, of terrestrial beings, and of inhabitants of the atmosphere (*antarikṣa* *ṛasmi*).

³ In Mahābh. N. I, p. 329 occur the groups 6—10, followed by Abhibhu, cp. there p. 327.

⁴ CHILDERS s. v. *jhāraṇa*.

⁵ Thus Ang. N. § 157, the second name is wanting in BURNOLF Intr. 212. As there ought to be only three names, it is probable that Brahmakāyikas properly is a comprehensive term for the whole group, as in Pāli, see CHILDERS Dict. p. 486. Cp. Dharma-S. CXXXIII.

⁶ Lal. V. 171 reads: Asaññasattas, agreeing with P. Asaññasattas, so, too, Dharma-S. I. c.

⁷ The Avṛhas wanting in Lal. V. I. c. Ang. N. § 161 adds Aghanisṭhas¹³ and Mahā-mahāniraya.

⁸ An account of the exact duration of life of the gods residing in the Ākāśa-*niropaka* and so on is found Ang. N. I, p. 267.

⁹ Detailed description of these hells occurs e. g. Ang. N. I, pp. 141 ff. Mahv. I, 7 ff. Cp. Ang. N. 212.

¹⁰ Lal. V. 171, p. 201. Ang. N. § 215, Divv. 67. Somewhat different Dharma-S. CXXXII, where the names = P. Avāraṇa.

¹¹ Ang. N. I, p. 123. The names also denote certain high numerals.

¹² Lal. V. 171, p. 201. Cp. L. FRITZ, *Die Inferioren*, JA 1892 and 1893.

adorned with more or less sensational names, but with no definite meaning. The number in the *Prajñā-Pāramitā* is no less than 108¹

Theoretically there should be as many *Samāpattis* as *Samādhis*. For the latter does not differ more from the former than a process going on does from its accomplishment. It is, in fact, expressly stated that there are eight *Samāpattis*, coinciding with the four inferior kinds of *Samādhi*, 1 e the four *Dhyānas*, and with the four *Āruppa Kammaṭṭhānas*. The ninth, *Nirodha-samāpatti*, answers to the *Saññāvedayitanirodha*²

Reverting to the *Kammaṭṭhānas*, we farther come across the *Āhārapati-kkūlasaññā*, consciousness of the impurity of material food. The last of the list is *Catudhātu-vavatthāna*, determination of the four elements.

Besides the forty Operations occasionally occur some exercises not included in the list, and yet termed *Kammaṭṭhānas*, e g the *Suññatā-kammaṭṭhāna*, but this is obviously merely another name for *Suññato* (sic) *samādhi*⁴

The base or substratum of an idea, and as such the subject for meditation is called *ārammana*, Skr *ārambana* or, more usually, *ālambana*⁵

In the foregoing we have had occasion to name several ideal worlds, the corporeal and the incorporeal *Brahmalokas*. These and similar worlds are spoken of in a way as if they constituted parts of the universe. The Buddhists, being idealists, make no marked difference between cosmical facts based on observation⁶ and the products of fancy. The one and the other belong to their cosmical system, whereof we will try to give a succinct view.

4 COSMICAL SYSTEM CLASSIFICATION OF LIVING BEINGS

The universe consists of innumerable spheres, *Cakravālas*, each of which has its own earth, sun, moon, heavens and hells⁷. Between those spheres are situated certain hells, termed *Lokāntarika*. The centre of our earth is occupied by Mount Meru or Sumeru (P also *Simeru*), around which are the principal mountains, *Kulācalas*⁸ and beyond these the four continents or *Mahā-dvīpas*, viz *Uttara-Kuru*, the country of the Hyperboreans, *Jambudvīpa*, India, to the South of the Meru, *Apara-Godāna* or *-Godāniya* (P *Apara-Goyāna*) to the West, *Pūrva-Videha* (*Pubba-V*) to the East⁹.

Each of the spheres consists of three *Avacaras*, regions, also styled *Lokas*, worlds, or *Dhātus*, layers, floors, the lowest being the region of *Kāma*, sensual pleasure, higher is the region of *Rūpa*, form, divided into four stages of *Dhyāna*, the highest is the region of *Arūpa*, formlessness¹⁰.

The lowest region is the abode of six classes of gods: 1 the four Rulers of the cardinal points, 2 the Thirty-three gods, 3 the *Yāmas*, 4 the *Tusitas*, 5 the

¹ Enumerated in *Vu* § 21

² *Pugg* P p 20, *Samv* N II, p 216 (nine *Viḥārasamāpattis*), *Vu* § 68, *Burnouf* Lot 348, 789, *Wassilief* B 140, 240 Cp *Yogas* I, 42—48

³ *Hardy* E M 96, from *Vis* M

⁴ *Ang* N I, p 299

⁵ *Arambana* in *Astas* P *Pāram* *ṭassam*, e g p 138, 269, *Vu* § 21, cp *anārambana* *Chāndogya* *Upaniṣad* 2, 9 But *ālambana* *Yogas* I, 10, 38, 42, *Comm*

⁶ In an idealistic system where there is no room for absolute reality, as the whole world is a product of imagination, in other words the world is created by *Dhvaṇa*. Cp *Hodgson* *Ess* 28, *Beal* Cat 124.

⁷ For details see *Childers* s *ṣattaloka* *Hardy* M of B 1 ff, *Legends* So ff *Burnouf* *Intr* 599 ff, *Waddell* *Buddh* of Tib 77—104

⁸ Cp *Dharma* S CXXV, note

⁹ Cp *Vu* § 154, *Lal* V 170, *Dhv* 213 ff

¹⁰ *Vu* § 155 *kāma*, *ṛūpa*, *arūpa* *dhātus*

10 Kumbhāndas, goblins, 11 Asuras, demons, 12 Rākṣasas, giants, monsters, 13 Pretas, ghosts, spectres, 14. the inhabitants of hell¹

Of all these only the first three will occupy us, the others need no particular notice, the less so, because they belong to Indian mythology in general

5 ARHATS, PRATYKABUDDHAS, AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Arhats are, dogmatically, all those who are walking in the fourth and highest stage of the path leading to Nirvāṇa. They are distinguished by faculties far surpassing those of common mortals. First of all then they possess the four sorts of *paṭisambhūḍā* — in N texts *pratisamvūḍ* — regarding 1 Artha, 2 Dharma, 3 Nirukti, 4 Pratibhāna. The purport of these terms seems to be a transcendent faculty in grasping the meaning of a text or subject, in grasping the Law of all things as taught by the Buddha, in evesis, readiness in expounding and discussing²

Besides the four distinctive faculties just named, the Arhat possesses five kinds of transcendent knowledge, Abhiññā (Abhiññā), to wit Rddhi (Iddhi), the power of working miracles. Further the Divine ear by which he is enabled to hear and understand all sounds in the universe³, knowledge of the thoughts of others, memory of former existences, and the Divine eye, by which he sees all that is occurring in the world and perceives how beings in different worlds die and are reborn. There is also a sixth Abhiññā, being the transcendent knowledge which causes the destruction of defiling passions⁵

The Arhat is also endowed with eight Vidyās, branches of knowledge, which, however, are nothing else but the six Abhiññās with the addition of *vipassanāñāna* and *manomayiddhi*. The latter is properly only one of the 10 Rddhis⁶

Vipassanā, Skr Vipasyanā and more correctly Vīdarsanā, is contemplation and the true insight connected with it. It is often mentioned together with Samatha, Skr Samatha, quietude, as an attribute of Arhats. Accordingly it is said that there are two orders of Arhats, the Sukkhavipassaka, the barely contemplative philosopher, and the Samathayānika, he who is devoted to quietude⁷

The power of working miracles requires the aid of the fourfold Padhāna

¹ The series in Vyu § 166 is Devas, Nāgas, Yākṣas, Gandharvas, Asuras, Daityas, Garuḍas, Kinnaras, Mahoragas, and Kumbhāndas. Several names of these beings are recorded § 167—175. Cp Divy 148 Lal V 184 omits Daityas, but adds Sakra, Brahmā, the Lokapālas, monks, nuns, lay devotees of both sexes

² See the dissertation of CHILDERS s v *paṭisambhūḍā*. For *pratibhāna* cp Mil P 340. *Paṭisambhūḍā*, apparently, means speciality, special and distinctive gift. *Pratisamvūḍ* is wholly inappropriate as has been pointed out by CHILDERS. Cp Vyu § 13, Dharmas 11, note

³ It has 4 subdivisions, *pādā*, see CHILDERS s v *iddhipādo*, the passage there adduced is identical with Vyu § 40

⁴ The same faculty belongs to the Yogin, Yogas III, 40

⁵ HARDY I M 254, M of B 38, BURNOUF Intr 295, lot S20 Cp CV VI, 6, 2, Lal V 184. Slight variations in Vyu § 14, the miraculous performances due to Abhiññā are summarized § 15. Cp Dharmas XX, note

⁶ CHILDERS s v *īḍḍi* and *manomay*. For the 10 sorts of Rddhi see HARDY M of I, 500. Sometimes there is question of 3 kinds of Iddhi *pāṇhāna*, and we know e g from Vyu N I, p 172, that many monks had the power of performing such miracle. Miracles, *pāṇhāna*, on sacred monuments (*cetiya*) of past Arhats, are not rare, Mil P 307. There are 3 species of Prāthārya *īddhi*, *ādesanī* and *anusāsani prāṭīḍḍiya*, Digh N I, pp 212 ff Vyu § 16

⁷ CHILDERS s v *śamatho*. Dhp p 125, WASSILIER B 141, Lal V 146, 218, Mhv I, 120, Vyu § 60

Above the hells is placed the animal kingdom or brute creation. Not unlikely we have to see in this notion the survival of ancient myths, for real animals are living on our planet, the world of men. Higher than the animal kingdom is the abode of Pretas, ghosts, spectres, though these beings are also placed in the Lokāntarika hell¹. Still higher is the domain of Asuras, demons, among whom ranks foremost Rāhu, the personified eclipse². The hells, together with the next three worlds, constitute the four Apāyalokas³, places of suffering. Adding to them the state of men, we get the 5 Gatis or states of existence⁴.

It is difficult for us to realise in how far such theories were matter of serious belief. This much is certain that in the canonical books, both of the South and the North, we repeatedly hear the Master gravely and in a tone of perfect earnest discoursing on his visits to various heavens &c. A visit to the Brahmāloka is vividly described by him in the Brahmanimantānika-Sutta⁵. In another passage he asserts that he had received a visit from Brahma Sahampati⁶. Suchlike declarations are numberless, not to speak of the passages where in the history of the Buddha the gods, especially Brahmā and Indra enter as actors, represented with as much reality as the Tathāgata himself. The Master knows all about the destiny of persons in the life to come, and freely predicts where so and so will be reborn, at the same time expressly — and suspiciously — stating that he does not use his transcendent faculty, as other teachers do, out of greed or in order to deceive the world⁷.

What have we to infer from all this? Whatever may have been the conviction and purpose of those who composed the canonical texts, it can hardly be doubted that the majority of the believers, both among the laity and the monks, have, up to this day, put implicit faith in the contents of their sacred books⁸.

Besides this system of 31 worlds and their inhabitants, there is another in which living beings are distinguished according to their higher and lower degree of spiritual excellence, a distinction, it must be observed, of a temporary character. For the lowest beings in the scale may by dint of Karman rise to the highest rank, and the most elevated can descend, with the exception of Buddhas, Pratyekabuddhas and Arhats, who are certain of reaching final Nirvāṇa.

According to this classification the highest beings are 1 the Supreme Buddhas, then follow 2 Pratyekabuddhas, 3 Arhats, 4 Devas, 5 Brahmas, 6 Gandharvas, celestial musicians, 7 Garudas, winged beings flying through the sky like lightning, 8 Nāgas, snake-like beings, resembling clouds, 9 Yakṣas⁹,

¹ Cp the tales in the Book of Ghost stories, Petavatthu, and CHILDERS s. v. *pretō*

² CHILDERS s. v. *asuro* and *Vu*, § 171

³ Lal V 236 mentions three Apāyas, without specifying them

⁴ Or six, if the Asuranikāya be added, BURROUF Lot 309, cp Dharma S LVII, note

⁵ Majjh N I, p 326

⁶ Ang N II, p 20, Majjh N I, p 458

⁷ Majjh N I, p 464

⁸ On the other hand it cannot be denied that in later Mahāyānist or Tantric works we come across instances of thorough going scepticism. In the Vajramandā Dhāraṇī the Buddha declares "The hells, o Mahāyūsi, are a creation of ignorant men who foolishly believe in what does not exist, the hells are a product of their fancy", BURROUF Intr p 544.

⁹ This word has in B writings sometimes a wider and older meaning, viz, that of a being to be worshipped or a powerful spirit, Indra e.g. is called a Yakṣa, even the Buddha is glorified by Upāli as an *ātuneyyo yakkho uttama-aggalo atulo*, Majjh N I p 386. The term is used synonymously with *devatutta* Samy N I, p 54. In a more restricted sense the Yakṣas are the attendants of Kubera as in Hindu mythology, cp *Vu* § 169.

or Sammā-p, right exertion or application¹, consisting 1 in the restraint of the senses, Samvara-p, 2 in the abandonment of sinful thoughts, 3 in the Bhāvanās, 4 in steady perseverance² — Certain spiritual qualities which the Arhats share with the Bodhisattvas will be noticed in the sequel

The prominent characteristic of the Arhat is Wisdom, Prajñā. It is by Wisdom that he crosses the ocean of existence, hence he is said to be Prajñāvimukta. His inferior, the Anāgāmin, cannot yet reach that ultimate goal, but becomes a denizen of the Brahmaloḥa, by means of Samādhi, whilst the Sakrdāgāmin and Srotaāpanna by virtue of Morality, Sila, occupy places intermediate between the Brahmaloḥa and the Apīyas³.

The Arhat is the Ārya *par excellence*, though all others who are progressing towards Deliverance are entitled to that denomination. In many cases Ārya, Arhat and Śrāvaka are convertible terms. Primarily Śrāvaka is a hearer, a disciple of Buddha, but it is not seldom used synonymously with Arhat or Ārya⁴, and the compound Āryasāvaka in general denotes a pious believer⁵.

In a later period we see the Mahāyānists apply Śrāvaka to denote the primeval Buddhists, but it is with them also a comprehensive term for their opponents, the Hīnayānists, whom we may call Old Buddhists.

The Mahāyānists divide all sons of Buddha into three classes, according to the *yāna*, the vehicle they use, the curriculum they go through: 1 the Yāna of the Śrāvakas, the lowest, 2 that of the Pratyekabuddhas, 3 that of the Bodhisattvas⁶. In connection with the whole tenor of the passage in Saddh. P. where the three Yānas are spoken of, it would seem that by the followers of the Śrāvaka-yāna are meant the Sthāviras or Buddhists of the old orthodoxy, with the second class the solitary contemplative philosophers⁷, with the third the accomplished teachers and preachers.

Although such a distinction is made, one should know that essentially there is only one Yāna, the Buddhayāna, because ultimately all beings, at one time or another, shall reach the same goal. Therefore the Tathāgata declares that he will lead all beings to final Nirvāna, adding "all beings are my children"⁸.

Both with the Mahāyānists and the adherents of the old creed the Arhats are inferior to the Pratyekabuddhas or private Buddhas. Dogmatically the Pratyekabuddha, P. Pacceka-b, is a being who has attained, like a Buddha,

¹ Ang. N. II, p. 15, S. Nip. p. 74, cp. Dharmas. XLV, Lal. V. 37, 218, 327. The form Prahāṇa in N. texts is a decidedly blundering rendering of a Prakṛt term into Skṛ. This is proved by the fact that the verbal expression corresponding to *samyak-prahāṇa* is *samyak-pradadhātū* Vvu. § 39, cp. Lal. V. 499.

² Ang. N. II, p. 16, Vvu. § 39.

³ Vis. M. I, p. 22 and p. 26, cp. Vvu. § 26.

⁴ Thus *āryā* Dhp. vs. 22 is explained p. 180 by *Buddha paccekabuddha sāvaka*, where *sāvaka* takes the place of Arhat. *Sāvaka bodhi* is the knowledge possessed by an Arhat, opposed both to supreme Buddha knowledge and to Pratyeka bodhi, see CHILDERS s. v. *sāvako*. The same results from Vvu. §§ 46—48.

⁵ In Ang. N. I, p. 210 the Āryasāvakas are exhorted to keep the Sabbath in a worthy manner, here the word can only mean a pious believer. So, too, the *gaṇapātī āryasāvako*, op. c. II, p. 68.

⁶ BURNOUR Lot. p. 52, 315. *Yānīkṛta*, P. *yānīkṛta* seems to be synonymous with *bahulīkṛta* and *bhāṛita* (e. g. San. N. I, p. 114, II, p. 264, MPS III, 75, Mil. P. 140), and to mean "gone through, studied, steadily exercised", pretty much the same as Skṛ. *abhyāsa* — For the 3 Yānas see Dharmas. II, and the references in the note, and WASSILIEF B. 7 BEYL compares the Platonic *ἐργασία*, Cat. 124.

⁷ In such passages like Mhv. I, 301, it is not difficult to recognize a hermit under the disguise of the term Pratyekabuddha.

⁸ Lot. p. 59. Cp. Dharmas. I. c.

The 18 Āvenika Dharmas, otherwise termed Buddha-dharmas or qualities of a Buddha, are, shortly stated, the following 1 the seeing of all things past, 2 of all things future, 3 of all things present, 4 propriety of actions of the body, 5 of speech, 6 of thought, 7 firmness of intention, 8 of memory, 9 of Samādhi, 10 of energy, 11 of emancipation, 12 of wisdom, 13 freedom from fickleness or wantonness, 14 from noisiness, 15 from confusedness, 16 from hastiness, 17 from heedlessness, 18 from inconsiderateness¹

The 4 Vaisāradyas (Vesārajās) are 1 the assurance of the Tathāgata that he has attained omniscience, 2 that he has freed himself from sin, 3 that he knows the impediments (*antarāyika-dharma*) to Nirvāna, 4 that he has shown the right way to salvation²

It is quite in keeping with Indian habits that the qualities and functions of such a sublime being as the Tathāgata are indicated by a host of epithets which more or less assume the character of proper nouns. The most common appellations are Buddha, Jina, Sugata, Tathāgata, decidedly titles are Arhat, Sāstr, Bhagavat, many other names are descriptive epithets, as Dasabala, Lokavid, Purusadamyasārathi, Sarvajña, Sadabhiñña, Anuttara, Narottama, Devāndeva, Trikālajña, Triprāthhāryasampanna, Nirbhaya, Niravadya, and the like³

Apart from the epithets applying to Buddhas in general, there are special names for the Buddha of the present period, as Sākyasiṃha Sākyamuni, Sākyapungava, Sākya, Sauddhodana, Ādityabandhu (in contradistinction to Kṛṣṇabandhu, i.e. Māra), Sūryavamsa, Siddhārtha, Sarvārthasiddha, Āṅgiraśa, Gautama⁴

In the oldest system of historical Buddhism, we have cognizance of, the Buddha of the present period had been preceded by 24 others. Their names are, in Pāli Dipamkara, Kondañña, Mangala, Sumanas, Revata, Sobhita, Anomadassin, Paduma, Nārada, Padumuttara, Sumedha, Sujāta, Piyadassin, Atthadassin, Dhammadassin, Siddhattha, Tissa, Pussa, Vipassin, Sikhin, Vesabhū, Kakusandha, Konāgamana, and Kassapa⁵. Each of them has his peculiar Bodhi tree, e.g. Dipamkara the *Ficus religiosa*, just as Gautama Buddha.

Many of these Tathāgatas are also mentioned in N writings, but not systematically, and lumped together with others of later invention⁶. The last

¹ The order slightly different in Vv 9. Cp Dharma S LXXIX, note. *Āvenika* or *āvenya* means "peculiar, exclusively proper", e.g. Jāt. IV p 358

² Āṅg N II, 9. See further Dharma S LXXVII

³ A remarkable string of epithets is contained in Upāli's hymn Majjh N I, p 386, which would afford matter for a complete Buddhology. Rich also is the list Vv 9 I, and the enumeration Lal. V 549—564, very poor in Amara kośa I, 8, and Divy 95

⁴ Gautama without the addition of Buddha is a rather irreverential term for a believer. It is only by his opponents and unbelievers (who need not be unfriendly, though) that he is called "Sramana Gautama". The most reverential term is Bhagavat, Lord. The rendering of this word with "Blessed One" is hardly right, as is proved by the meaning of the shortened *bhagav* and *bha*. Bhagavat is essentially the same word as Slavonic *božatŭ*, rich, Russian *božatŭ*, a rich man, a meaning naturally passing into that of "a lord". It bears to the shortened Vedic vocative *bhagav* and the still shorter *bhos* nearly the same relation as French Seigneur to Monsieur, and English Sir. Nothing is more common than that words properly meaning *dominus* are applied to ecclesiastical worthies, e.g. Dom, Domine, Kuningas Rabbi etc.

⁵ Their history is recorded in Buddhav and Jāt. Intr I, p 3 ff. Properly there are three more Tathāgatas, to wit Tanhamkara, Medhamkara, and Saranamkara, but they are not taken into account, because it was Dipamkara who first predicted the future Buddhahood of Gautama Buddha, Dh p 117, and cp Mhv I 237, ff.

⁶ See in HODGSON Ess p 33 the lists drawn from Lal. V and other works. Thirty-two Tathāgatas are enumerated Lot p 113

hardly to be doubted that these worthies, like so many other Buddhas and Bodhisattvas have been canonized after the time of Asoka.

The being who one day should appear as Gautama Buddha, went through numberless births during incalculable ages before he attained Buddhahood, after receiving the prediction to his future destiny from 24 Buddhas¹. The prehistory of Śākyamuni, the Buddha of the present Bhadrakalpa, in connection with the predictions of former Tathāgatas is recorded in S and in N Buddhist texts with material discrepancies². Memorable occurrences and great feats (*apadāna*, *avadāna*) in his prehistory are related in a number of tales called Jātakas and Avadānas. Such stories occasionally occur inserted in other works but there exist also separate collections of Jātakas and Avadānas, some of them reckoned to belong to the canonical books others composed or rather retouched by profane authors. The P Caṇḍiā-Piṭaka contains 35 stories exemplifying as many proofs of Pāramitā furnished by the future Gautama Buddha, a Skt composition by Ārya Sūtra, the Jātaka-Mālā, describes 34 Jātakas or Bodhisattva-avadānas³. There is certainly some connection between the number of stories in Sūtra's composition and the epithet Catus-trimsajātaka-jña of Buddha although in the absence of a fixed date to be assigned to the origin of the epithet, the cause of the coincidence is not traceable. As to the 35 tales of the Caṇḍiā-Piṭaka, we suspect that the number has something to do with the number of years passed by the Bodhisattva Siddhārtha-Gautama before he attained perfect and complete Enlightenment. However that may be, it is not easy to see how both numbers can be commensurable with the 10, or, if we reckon the subdivisions, 30 Pāramitās

The Bodhisattvas are endowed with many eminent moral and intellectual qualities. Their most striking characteristic is compassionateness. They represent, in general, active virtue and highmindedness in contradistinction to the Arhats who are inactive. One might mark the difference between the two classes of persons by saying that the Bodhisattvas are compassionate, the Arhats unpassionate or passionless.

The 10 Pāramitās or Pāramis, perfect virtues, are, in Pāli, the Pāramitās of *dāna* almsgiving, *sīla*, morality *nekkhamma*, renunciation of the world, *paññā*, wisdom, *virīya*, energy, *khanti*, forbearance, *sacca*, truthfulness, *adhiṭṭhāna*, resolution, *mettā* or *mettī*, charity, and *upēkkhā*, indifference, equanimity, each of them divided into three degrees.

Along with their eminent moral virtues the Bodhisattvas possess such intellectual qualities as are conducive to enlightenment, and which are therefore termed Bodhipāśika dharmas Bodhipākṣadharmaś P Bodhipakkhika, 'pakkhiva, or Bodhapakkhiva, thirty-seven in number⁵ These qualities are

² The exact number is 4 Asankhvetas and 100000 Kalpas, Saddh. S. p. 1, Bodhi-v. p. 11, less certain Mr. I. 1 "innumerable Asankhvetas, numberless Kalpas"

12 It is pp. 4 ff. HARDA M. of L. Sg ff. It should be observed that according to the 'heom' of the Lolo travandins the primeval Buddha, near whom the future Śākyamuni was to become a Tathāgata, is likewise named Śākyamuni, Mhv. I. 1. This seems to mean that he is either Śākyamuni or an Aśtara of the primeval Śākyamuni, the Avatara of Śākyamuni, a tenet fully developed in the school of the Aśvankas, see HONGAN ET AL. 70 Cf. W. DILLI Buddha of Tib. 126, 130, 3-8.

On the same subject see S. d'OLDENBURG's paper "On the Buddhist Iconography of the Buddha" in *Journal of the Asiatic Society of London*, 1904, p. 120, 130, 131.

* CHU. P. De. p. 335. Av. 534 has 11c use 10 P, but with substitution of 1c for 10c, Upan, Pān, and Hāna for Mett, Nekkhammā, and Upekkhā, Prāṇidhāna for 10c, and the same more advanced 11c of 10 P also in Dharma⁴ XVIII, but of 6c in VII see also elsewhere, and and Kāra⁴ V II, 9, cp on Kāra⁴, Vīrya, Dāna

For Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug, Lap. V S 218, Dharma 3 ALIII

been reduced to a minimum, and the traits lent to him are not a whit more real than e.g. those of Avalokitesvara¹. Consequently, in all periods of the creed the Buddha is only anthropomorphic, not a man. What he may have been in prehistoric Buddhism, must be left to individual taste and fancy, it is no matter of science.

7 BODHISATTVAS AND THEIR QUALITIES

The sublime place occupied by the Buddha cannot be reached before his having gone through numerous, nay innumerable existences, and having lived in lower and higher states. A being destined to develop into a Buddha is called a Bodhisattva, he is, we may say, a Buddha *potentiâ*, not yet *de facto*. Properly "Bodhisattva" simply means "a sentient or reasonable being", possessing *bodhi*, but this faculty has not yet ripened to *samyak-sambodhi*, perfect sensibleness. He is, in a word, the personification of what the Yogins call *buddhisattva*, potential intelligence, just as the Buddha, the Samyaksambuddhi, personifies *buddhi*, the highest product of nature in most Indian systems of philosophy based on cosmogony.

In the evolution of a Bodhisattva — usually called his course, *caryâ* — one distinguishes three periods: 1. that of the aspiration (*abhinîhâra*), 2. of the prediction (*vijâkarana*) by the Tathâgata of the period that the aspirant once shall become a Buddha, 3. of the tumultuous acclamation (*halâhala*) at the approach of his last birth². Others distinguish four periods: 1. that of the intention (*manas*), 2. of the vow or firm resolution (*pranidhâna*), 3. of pronouncing that vow (*vâkpranidhâna*), of the revelation (*vyâkarana*)³. Similarly in N writings, albeit with some variations: 1. Prakṛticaryâ, original course, 2. Prānīdhāna-c, course of the vow or firm resolution, 3. Anuloma-c, course in accordance with the vow taken, 4. Anivartana-c, the course in which no sliding back is possible⁴.

The Bodhisattvas, like the Buddhas, are honoured with various epithets, the most common being Mahāsattva⁵. A great number of them are honoured by the Mahīyānists. The most celebrated, apart from Maitreya, who is also known in the South, are Avalokitesvara or Lokeshvara and Mañjuśrī⁶. It is

¹ The Mādhyamikas, reasoning upon the old Buddhist axiom *sarvam sūnyam*, arrive, most logically, at the conclusion that the Buddha himself is as void and nothing as all the rest. BURNOLF Intr. 481, VASSILIEF B 348, SCHMIDT, Ueber das Mahāvānā, 207. Implicitly this absolute Nihilism is contained in the passage S Nip p 203, already cited, cp Majjh N 1, 297, BU ANDER II, 239. In absolute truth, Paramārtha, there is neither *mredha* nor *bhūta*. Śāntideva, Zapski IV, p 219. In other words there is no such thing as Nirvāṇa, it is a mere delusion, the very idea of Nirvāṇa springs from *avidyā*, BEAL Cat 125.

² This we may infer from Jāt. Intr. p 47.

³ HARDY M of B 88.

⁴ Mh. I, 1, 46 ff. The prediction, Vijâkarana of future Buddhahood, takes place in the fourth period, it is repeated by subsequent Buddhas.

⁵ This we may render with "Noble Being", though it looks as a veiled synonymous term for Bodhisattva. For *mahat* is synonymous with *budhi* = *boani*. Other epithets in Vyū § 22.

⁶ Vyū § 23, where the list opens with *Avalokiteśvara* in Dharma S. XII only eight are named, and, strangely, with omission of Avalokitesvara, see the note on L c for synonymous names, and other divisions. Several Bodhisattvas are honoured by Śāntideva in Bodhicary, chiefly Mañjuśrī, Zapski IV, pp 158, 161, 225. On Lokeshvara, cf Matsyendra cp Versl Meded K Ak of 1888, pp 14, 42. See further WADDELL JRAS of 1894, p 31, Buddh of Tib 356 on Avalokita.

of Sākyamuni are frequently called his Avatāras, at least with the N Buddhists. In the creed of the N Church, or of some sects, it is admitted that those Avatāras had occurred not only in former times, but that the Buddha retained his power of Avatāra, of appearing on earth as a Bodhisattva, even after his complete Nirvāna. Such an Avatāra of Sākyamuni was the prince Kunāla, the virtuous son of Asoka.¹ If we remember that in the Lotus Sākyamuni declares his Nirvāna to be only a feint for the benefit of mankind, we cannot refrain from supposing that the masters of the Mahāyāna had no belief in an historical Nirvāna.² In fact, we have seen that with them the very idea of Nirvāna is a delusion.

8 MORALS

The moral code of the Brahmanist Indians has professedly its roots in the Veda, tradition, the custom observed by good men, and one's own conscience.³ Buddhist morality is dogmatically founded on, and referrible to the Buddha, for we read "*Bhagavammūlakā no dhammā Bhagavammnettikā Bhagavatampatisaranā*"⁴ Yet it does not necessarily follow from this dogma that the Buddha was supposed to have invented the whole of morality. On the contrary, the Master himself repeatedly extols the morals and virtues of the ancient Rsis. "The Dharma", says he, "is the ensign of the Rsis"⁵ The exemplary life and the great feats of generosity, self-sacrifice &c. of the Bodhisattvas might be adduced as an implicit evidence of what the Buddhists themselves believed about the moral faculties of mankind in prebuddhist times. But more significant is the explicit statement by the Master that the Brahmins of yore were distinguished by the highest moral qualities.⁶ Even the fact that the true, the genuine Brahman is not seldom represented as the noblest of creatures, in contradistinction to those who are merely Brahmins by birth, Bhovādins, or as the unbelievers call them, Brahmanabandhus, would have been impossible if the type had wholly failed in common life.

In spite of the fore-mentioned dogma, Buddhism has wisely adopted many articles of morality and pious customs flowing from the sources of the Brahmanist code. When the Master commands that the pious Buddhist householder, *gahapati ariyasāvaka*, ought to perform the five Bahs to the family, the guests, the Pitaras, the king, and the gods⁷, it is manifest that he draws from the Smṛti, and when he appeals to conscience, *ātman*, notoriously a non-entity in Buddhism⁸, he authorized a view thoroughly at variance with the fundamental maxims of the creed.

¹ This is distinctly stated by Ksemendra in Avad Kalp Nr 59, an older redaction of this charming tale occurs, as is well known, in Divy 403 ff.

² SBL XXI, p 307, ff. — It is a fact that the half pantheistic, half theistic views of the Mahāyānists were condemned by their opponents, WASSIELIEF B 263.

³ Manu II, 6.

⁴ Majjh N I, p 310.

⁵ Ang N II, p 31. An exemplary Rsi was the hermit Asita Devala, notwithstanding his following heterodox rules (*bīhiraṭa mārṅga*), S Nip pp 128 ff Cp Vih II, 30, where the text, after due correction, runs thus "teṣu pravrajām pravrajito mūlapālapatrabhikṣo u'cha pū". He had exercised the 4 Dhyanas and had realized the 5 Abhyānas.

⁶ Prahmanika dhamma S in S Nip p 30. The statement is the more remarkable because the same Sutta otherwise is a piece of wholesale and unscrupulous, silly slander, cp Harad Legends 42 ff. Though the Brahmins themselves are often calumniated, their gifts to the monks are always welcome and highly praised, Itiv p 111. Pruse of the true Brahman, S Nip p 116.

⁷ Ang N II, p 68.

⁸ Ang N I, p 149 "Attā te, parisa, jñāti saccam vā vadī vā musā." The addition

not, as is the case with the Pāramitās, peculiar to the Bodhisattvas, for they belong likewise to the Arhats. They comprize seven categories:

I The four kinds of Smṛtyupasthāna¹, presentness of memory, thoughtfulness 1 in regard to the body, 2 to sensations, 3 to rising thoughts, 4 to Dharma.

II The four kinds of application, right exertion, Sammappadhāna N Samyak-prahāna, already enumerated.

III The four parts of miraculous power, Rddhipāda, Iddhipāda, as above.

IV The five Indriyas, mental energies, faculties, faith, energy, memory or thoughtfulness, concentration of mind, and wisdom².

V The five Balas, mental powers, not differing from the Indriyas, unless in intensity.

VI The seven constituents of Bodhi, Bodhyanga, Sambodhyanga, to wit memory, investigation (*dharmavicaya*), energy, contentment (*prīti*), calm, concentration of the mind, contemplation (*samādhi*), and indifference or equanimity³.

VII The Eightfold Path, Aṣṭāṅgika-mārga of the Āryas, already treated of.

Occasionally we come across other qualifications or faculties of Bodhisattvas, but they do not belong to the system of 37 Bodhipākṣika dharmas and are partly common to Bodhisattvas and Arhats⁴. To the latter amiable qualities, which should by no means be confined to those saintly persons, may be reckoned the four Sangraha-vastus (Sangaha-vatthus) elements of friendly treatment, to wit liberality in almsgiving, affability, officiousness, and co-operation⁵.

In N texts the whole career of a Bodhisattva is divided into ten degrees or stages, Bhūmis, the system of which is amply described in Mahāvastu⁶. The most usual names are Pramuditā, Vimalā, Prabhākari, Arciṣmatī, Sudurjayā, Abhimukhī, Dūrangamā, Acalā, Sādhumatī (or Madhumatī), and Dharmameghā⁷.

The prerogatives or immunities of being a Bodhisattva are numerous⁸, and proportionate to their duties.

Before leaving this chapter we ought to note that the Bodhisattva births

¹ P Satipatthāna, a compound of *satī* and *upatthāna*, as already observed by CHILDERS cp *farumukham satim upatthapetvā* Ang N II, p 38, *pratimukham smṛtim upasthāpya* Divv 20. See further Samv N I, 180, Lal V 218, Dharma S XLIV. Synonymous terms are *kūyagatānusmṛti* etc Lal V 36, *kūyagatū satī*, *kūyānupassanā*, etc belonging to the Kammatthānas.

² Dharma S XLVII and the references, Vvu § 41. The four Indriyas are the same with exception of wisdom, Ang N II, p 141.

³ Dharma S XLVIII, Vvu § 42. The four Balas are the same, except wisdom, Ang N I c.

⁴ Dharma-S XLIX and note, Vvu § 43, Majjh N I, p 61, Mil P S3. Sometimes only 6 Sambodhāngas are mentioned, memory being excluded, Ang I, p 53, here with cp the Yogāngas of the Yoga — As to the rendering of Samādhi cp the synonymy of Samādhāna and Dhyaṇa in Bodhicary, Zapiski IV, p 208.

⁵ To the Bodhisattvas are ascribed 10 Vastās, mights, Vvu § 27, Dharma-S LXXIV.

⁶ The P terms are *dāna*, *prajavajja* or *prajavacana*, *atthacariyā*, and *samāratteṭṭhā* Ang N II, p 32, in Dharma S XIX *dāna*, *prajavacara*, *atthacariyā* and *samānirīkatā*, so, too, in Lal 39, 183, 218, but *prajavākya* and *arthakriyā*. Slightly different in Mhv I, 3 *dāna*, *tailārttacariyā*, *prajavāḍya*, and *samānasukhaśukkhātā*, i e taking part in another's joy and sorrow — The addition of the words "appertaining to kings" in CHILDERS p 447 is a mistake, as is evident from Ang N I c and Divv 95.

⁷ I 76 ff. The names are Durāroha, Baddhamānā, Puṣpamanāṭā, Rucirā, Citta-vistārā, Rūpavattī, Durjayā, Janmanideśa, Yauvarājya- and Abhiśeka bhumi.

⁸ For references see Dharma-S LXIV, cp Dasabhūmī-vāra in IRAS of 1875, p 4, — A list of 13 Bhūmis occurs Dharma S LXV.

⁹ Enumerated Jāt Intr, vs 252—258.

division of the commandments into two categories is visible also in the Buddhist Decalogue, the *Dasasīla*, otherwise termed the ten *Sikṣāpadas* (*Sikkhāpadas*), precepts of training. The ten *Sīlas* are all of them binding on the members of the Order, the first five on lay devotees¹. These forbid 1 the destruction of life, 2 theft, 3 unchastity, 4 lying, 5 the use of intoxicating liquors, the other five prohibit 6 eating at forbidden hours, 7 attending worldly amusements, 8 the use of unguents and ornaments, 9 the use of a large or ornamented couch, 10 the receiving of money.

The prohibitions 1—5 are couched in the same terms for all persons, but there is some difference in the application. Thus chastity, *brahmacariya* means in the case of monks and nuns absolute abstinence from sexual intercourse just as in the case of *Brahmacārins* for lay devotees it means refraining from adultery². Theft is, in common life, taking anything that has not been given, but a monk commits a thievish act even if he smells at a flower³.

If persons appertaining to the laity keep besides the first five precepts the three next following, at least on Sabbathdays, it is a highly meritorious act for which heaven will be their reward⁴.

The moral obligations of those who have renounced the world extend beyond the *Dasasīla*. In their morality three degrees are distinguished, the inferior, the middling and the superior degree. The first two degrees are coextensive with the *Dasasīla* in its strictest interpretation, the third consists in refraining from pagan sacrifices, prognostications, astrology and such-like professions⁵. No one, unless unacquainted with Brahmanic literature, will fail to perceive that this superior morality is nothing else but the rule of life of the *Dvija* in the fourth *Āśrama*, when he is a *Yati* or *Mukta*. It is difficult to explain why and at what time all such minute prescriptions were deemed necessary for *Sramanas*, as their vow of embracing a spiritual life would seem to be sufficient. The only plausible explanation is that all those superfluous details were bodily or with some modifications⁶ taken from *Dharmasūtras* and *Dharmasāstras*, in which they were appropriate, because Brahmins and other *Dvijas* are not obliged by any vow to observe the rules specified.

Buddhism deserves credit for its having discountenanced the coarser forms of superstitious rites and degrading ascetic observances⁷.

The sons of *Sākya* have as a rule respected the moral feelings and

¹ See CHILDERS s. v. *sīlam*, and his references. Cp. *Yogas* II, 30, 32.

² The five precepts for the laity are more amply expounded *S. Nip.* p. 69.

³ *S. Nip.* N. I, p. 204, *Jāt.* III, 308.

⁴ A sabbath thus observed is termed *attharāṅko uposatho*, *S. Nip.* p. 70, *Ang.* N. I, p. 215. In the *Gāthās* ascribed to the Buddha we find the phrase "Etaṃ hi aṅghaṅkham āhūpo-atham, Buddhena dukkhaṇtagaṇaṃ paṭāsitaṃ." It is curious to hear the Master speaking in the 3d person.

⁵ An elaborate exposition of all this is given in *Sāmaññaphala S.* and *Subhā S.* of the *Dīgha N.* Cp. *Br. out. Lo.* 463 ff. Even the practice of medicine is forbidden to a Buddhist, *S. Nip.* p. 172. Sacrifices are totally discredited p. 190, but *Ang.* N. II, p. 43 only. Blood-sacrifices, it is added that unbloody sacrifices (*nirārambha jāṇā*) are approved by the Master, and agreeable to the gods, p. 44.

⁶ The technical parts bear here and there their unbuddhistic origin, cp. above p. 69, note.

⁷ In the *Udāṭṭapārāṇasā* *P. silakkataparāṇasā*, the abuse of moral vows or observances. *Vel.* § 104, *Majjh.* N. I, p. 433, *Ang.* N. I, 242, *Dh. Sang.* 1005. Not all *Sramanas* are as condemned, as appears from *S. Nip.* p. 196, *Dhp.* vs. 271, *Bodhi v.* p. 70, or some (*Al.* I, 202), of the bad and foolish sort, like the *gerata*, *Lal. V.* 250, *Udāṭṭapārāṇasā* § 104, or an ascetic who feeds upon grass like a cow, *Majjh.* N. I, p. 387, *Udāṭṭapārāṇasā* § 3350, *Luk. uttara* § 12 is one who lives like a dog, a cynic, *Majjh.* N. I, c.

The other sources, the *smṛti-śīle tadvidām* and the *ācārah sādhanām* of Manu, have not been lost sight of by the Buddhists. To these categories belong the duties qualified as *panditapaññatta* and *sappurisapaññatta* and consisting in almsgiving, in *alimsā*, and in supporting father and mother¹.

It is hardly accidental that almost all passages where moral duties are enjoined are either wholly or partly in metrical form, and this circumstance in combination with the fact of those passages containing so much that is contrary to the fundamental articles of the creed, leads us to the inference that the sect originally had no moral code at all, except the prohibitions and duties prescribed to the members of the Order, which only partly coincide with the laws of society in general.

If we wish to form a just estimate of the character of Buddhist morals, such as laid down in the final redaction of the canonical books, we must bear in mind 1 that the prescriptions were intended to supply the wants both of the ecclesiastics and of the laity, 2 that the Arhats are, to a certain extent, above common morality. The Sage, *muni*, has no attachment, does nothing what is pleasant nor what is unpleasant². Those who are wise abandon their children³. A man who leaves his poor wife, the mother of his child, in order to become a monk, and obstinately refuses to take care of her and the child, is held up to the admiration of the world as having done something very grand. Still at other times we read that one's wife is the best friend, and that a wife is the most excellent of goods, though repeatedly women are described as horribly wicked creatures with hardly any exception⁴. Such inconsistencies are endless.

There is no formal discrepancy between the two great branches of the Church as regards their moral code, but as a rule it may be said that with the N Buddhists moral activity comes much more into the foreground than with their brethren in the South. Not the Arhat, who has shaken off all human feeling, but the generous, self-sacrificing, active Bodhisattva⁵ is the ideal of the Mahāyānists, and this attractive side of the creed has, more perhaps than anything else, contributed to their wide conquests, whereas S Buddhism has not been able to make converts except where the soil had been prepared by Hinduism and Mahāyānism⁶.

All moral laws, either in India or elsewhere, may roughly be brought under two heads: 1 prescriptions the infringement of which is followed by penalty, 2 injunctions the fulfilment of which is meritorious and somehow meeting with its reward. The former commandments are everywhere the strongest, because they are absolutely necessary for the maintenance of society. Therefore they are expressed in the form of prohibitions, as only forbidden acts are liable to punishment. The usual Indian term for this category of obligations is *yama*, the second being known by the name of *niyamas*, 1 e obligations only binding for certain classes of persons, or under certain circumstances, though meritorious for all. The principle underlying the

of *sakkhi*, 'O witness' proves that the whole metrical passage, clumsily joined to the prose, has been taken from some Dharmasāstra, the lines occur in a slightly different redaction in Manu VIII, 84 ff.

¹ Ang N I, p 151

² S Nip p 153 "Sabbattha muni anissito na piyam kubbati no pi apiyam"

³ Therig vs 302

⁴ Ud I, S, Samy N I, pp 37, 43, Ang N II, p 50, Mil P p 205

⁵ In the picture of the Supreme Buddha the traits of the Arhat and the Bodhisattva have been blended into an harmonious whole. In Vedānta phraseology, one might say, he combines the traits of the neuter *brahman* and the masculine *brahman*.

⁶ Cp TAW SEIN KO in Ind Ant XXII, 165, Tir 262

In the same discourse there is a trait of liberal-mindedness which should not be left unnoticed. When the Licchavi Duke, who was an adherent of the Jain sect, had become a convert to Buddhism, the Master administered to him the following charitable counsel "For a long time, Siha, your house has been a place of refreshment for the Nirgranthas. Therefore you should deem it proper that alms shall be given to them when they come to you"

It does not follow that the sons of Śākya much liked the Jains, nor that they were latitudinarians in matters of doctrine. On the contrary, heresy, *mithyādrsti*, is considered by them like by many other religious communities, a most damnable sin, to be punished by the torments of hell¹. Whether erroneous views outside the community were considered all equally wicked, is questionable. At any rate some heterodox sects were more abhorred than others, the gymnosophists of the Ājīvaka sect e. g. had the reputation of being most impious. On a certain occasion the Buddha is asked by a wandering mendicant of the Vatsa clan whether any Ājīvaka after death can become a denizen of heaven, not to speak of Deliverance. The answer is "In the 91 Kalpas, Vātsya, I have remembrance of, I do not remember of any Ājīvaka having become a denizen of heaven, except one, and he was one who acknowledged the effect of Karman (*kammavādin*) and the value of actions (*viriyavādin*)"

It is difficult to characterize the peculiarity of the Buddhist code of worldly morality, and that for two reasons. Firstly, because its articles do not differ from the standard recognized in India, secondly, because the spirit penetrating the prescriptions is different according to the divisions of the Church. Buddhism properly being a monastic institution and the laity but accessory, it is natural that social customs and obligations were tolerated, after some pruning, if they were not in flagrant conflict with the dogma of the Church. Current moral tales were collected and received into the canon, after some remodelling and by transforming such tales into Jātakas and Avadānas. By this contrivance the stories have acquired a strongly pious tinge, which is less accentuated or wholly wanting in the corresponding tales in the Mahā-Bhārata, Pañcatantra, Brhat-kathā, &c.

The second difficulty arises if we try to reproduce the different shades of moral sentiment we discover, on comparing the S. Buddhists with their brethren in the North, and further the Hinayānists with the Mahāyānists. Hīnayānism has gradually been ousted by its opponents, and it may be said without exaggeration that the Buddhism of medieval India bears the stamp of the Mahāyāna. Now it cannot be denied that charity and mercifulness are more predominant or at least more highly extolled in Mahāyānist texts than in other books, and so it is not to be wondered at that those virtues or sentiments have been looked upon as distinctive of Buddhism, even by Brahminical authors, like Bāṇa. The ideal of the Mahāyānists, however lofty, is unhappily marred by the fact that to exemplify their own charity and mercifulness they begin with abjudicating those virtues to all other creeds².

¹ A. S. N. II, p. 227.

² A. S. N. I, p. 453. — The doctrine of the Ājīvikas — according to their opponents — is "mīṇa" (fish), i. e. "no fish", i. e. "no fish", Ang. N. I, p. 248, cp. Digh. N. I, p. 53.

³ The cream here is the Jātakas refer the occurrences to the times of the Buddha. The tale of Bharata shows that the home of these tales is the country near Benares and not Magadha. The Buddhists are

⁴ A. S. N. I, p. 124.

social customs of their heterodox country-men and contemporaries¹ Far from being indifferent to public opinion, they anxiously avoided giving offence Repeatedly we read how people are scandalized by the behaviour of some monks, how the question whether such a behaviour is or is not lawful is brought before the Master, and how his decision is always conform to public opinion² In all such cases the Buddha is simply the echo of the public voice This deference for the opinion of the world, *lokalādhīpatiya*, P *lokalādhīpateyya*, goes so far that the Congregation, for aught we know, never straightforwardly attacks the family and matrimony Therefore we cannot wonder if we meet in the canonical books with a detailed exposition of the various duties which children and parents, man and wife, master and servant, friends, ecclesiastics and lay men have to observe towards each other A treatise in which the Buddha teaches a young layman the duties that were generally acknowledged in the Indian Smṛtis, is the Sigālovāda, known in a S and a N redaction³ Of moral lessons in poetical form there is no lack Collections containing beautiful maxims, partly universally Indian in character, partly more specifically Buddhist, are the Dhammapada, the Mangala-Sutta, and the Udānavarga⁴

As a whole the moral teaching of the Church bears witness to a certain breadth of view, not superior, indeed, to what is professed by individuals of other persuasions in India, but certainly to the usual catechism of other Indian creeds, which are moreover mixed up with offensive superstitions A striking example that exclusiveness in matters of trifling importance cannot be laid to the charge of Buddhism is the answer given by the Lord to Devadatta, when the latter urged him to command that the monks should during their whole life abstain from fish and meat⁵ We know that the Tathāgata declined the demand

Highly characteristic, too, is the discourse between the Buddha and the Licchavi Duke Siha, at Vaisālī On that occasion the Master declares that in a certain manner he teaches the value of action (*kiriya-vāda*), and in another respect the value of non action (*akiriya-vāda*), that in a certain sense he teaches annihilation (*uccheda-vāda*), &c Whereupon the terms used are subjected to a process of twisting and distortion to such an extent that all definiteness is lost⁶

¹ Exceptions as the attack directed against the caste system in Assalāvana S are comparatively rare The Vajrasūci with its contents stolen from Sāṅkara deserves notice only as a literary curiosity

² Instances occur *passim* in the Vinaya, see e g MV V, CV III Cp Yājñav I, 156

³ Text in GRIMBLOT'S "Sept Suttas Palis", transl by CHILDERS in the Contemporary Review of 1876 The N text is only partially known from a Chinese version, BEAL Trip 112 — A detailed account of the duties of laics occurs in MINAYEF Recherches I, 163—174, with copious references

⁴ The Mangala S ed and transl by CHILDERS in JRAS IV, 2 (New s), Udānavarga transl from Tibetan by ROCKHILL The Dhp belongs properly to the Theravāda sect, as we may infer from Jātaka M p 98, l 24 It is intended chiefly for members of the Order

⁵ The eating of fish and meat is allowed if it is pure in three respects, to wit if one has not seen, nor heard, nor suspected (that it has been procured for the purpose), MV VI, 31, 14, CV VII, 3, 15, Majjh N I, 368 ff From the express prohibition of eating the flesh of men, elephants, horses, dogs, snakes, lions, tigers, bears, hvenas, we must infer that the flesh of other animals was no forbidden food, MV VI, 23

⁶ MV VI, 31, cp I, 38, Tib Leb 268 The Buddha is both a *kiriya-vādin* and an *akiriya-vādin*, Ang N I, p 62, Samv N I, p 38 *kammam tassa (sattassa) parājanam* is no contradiction He does not teach *sabbam atthi*, nor *sabbam natthi*, Samv N II, p 76, he declares to proclaim nothing else but what the *loke paṇḍitās* teach, III, p 138

ledge, followed the lessons and guidance of some renowned teacher that even Balksus did the same and it is highly probable that persons of that type constituted the nucleus of distinct sects which after the death of the revered master or already during his life time developed into congregations with their disciplinary regulations, into monastic Orders with distinctive outward characteristics.

Although the epoch of the rise of Buddhism cannot be determined with certainty, we know that in the days of Asoka the Congregation Sangha was a well-organized body in possession of canonical books. Hence we infer that it had already existed for a considerable space of time, as well as the four Orders of the Nirgranthas and Ājivakas. Considering that the oldest books of the Buddhist canon incessantly speak of the Nirgranthas and Ājivakas and of the frequent borrowings between them and the sons of Śākya, we have no reason to doubt that the three Orders were founded almost simultaneously. Nor need we be sceptical when we read that the custom of regularly keeping the Sabbath Uposatha or Posatha¹ and of preaching on those days was introduced in imitation of other sects². This is not the only instance. In general it may be said that the whole organization of the Sangha and a good deal of the rules for monks and nuns — if we may trust the canonical writings, — were introduced by imitation or by accident. The Master is less a legislator than an upholder of the law: he invents few new ordinances, he only ratifies the public opinion and decides in highest instance when there have arisen questions among the brethren. The dogmatical fables invented to account for the introduction or ratification of this or that rule, have no historical value of course, but they certainly reflect the theory prevalent in the Congregation, and that theory could not but have its root in experience³. Some of those stories are based upon a misunderstanding or distortion of the plain text of the rules, so that there can be no doubt about their having been invented considerably later than the disciplinary rules to which they refer.

The disciplinary and penal code of the Sangha undoubtedly one of the oldest if not the very oldest part of the canonical compositions, barring some occasional articles is the *Pāṭimokkha* *Sū* *Prātimokṣa*.² This fundamental code of discipline is common to all Buddhists in different redactions, which, however agree in all essential points. The Pāli version is unquestionably the oldest and accordingly the shortest. The Pāṭm. for monks contains 227

3 In words like *Śar* *Posāha*, an impossible form, because the *o* for *oa*, being secondary, never could produce the change of the *cer* al. no the *Mādhura*, which more never *a* separated from the *Prāṇa* — *P. atra* occur. J. IV, 342, cp DMG 48, 63

W H L

A great part of the disciplinary rules of the Order are represented as being due to the recalcitrant behaviour of six monks, who, like the six Tirthukas, always enter a complaint and are equally reprehensible. Instances occur *passim* in S. Vibh.

⁴ E. & P. - Inc. vs. S. Viba. II, p. 94.[illegible]

Even towards their brethren of the Hinayāna their feelings were far from charitable¹

As a whole the Buddhists have shown themselves to be less exclusive and more liberal-minded than the adherents of other Indian religions inasmuch as in propagating their faith they did not attempt to hinduize their converts. By acting upon so sound a principle they have elevated their creed to the rank of a universal religion

PART IV

THE CONGREGATION MODES OF WORSHIP

I INDIAN MONACHISM DISCIPLINARY AND ASCETIC RULES

In many countries and at various times there were men who dissatisfied with the condition of society around them, or disappointed in their dearest expectations, fled the bustle, troubles, deceptive pleasures and wickedness of the world in order to seek in solitude or in the company of sympathizers quietude and peace of mind. Nowhere the conditions are so favourable for the development of anachoret and monastic life as in India. Climate, institutions, the contemplative bent of the national mind, all tended to facilitate the growth of a persuasion that the highest aims of human life and real felicity cannot be obtained but by seclusion from the busy world, by undisturbed pious exercises, and by a certain amount of mortification.

The time-honoured Indian institution of the four Āśramas contained all the germs of monachism, more than that, it afforded the example of a saintly mode of life. To begin with the Brahmacārin, he is obliged during the whole course of his study to observe absolute chastity, must refrain from intoxicating drink, take care not to hurt any living being, avoid the use of perfumes, unguents and finery, hold himself aloof from dancing, singing and other mundane amusements, show good breeding in all his manners, be clad in a deer hide and a red, reddish yellow or yellow robe. Moreover he has duly to beg his food². These and similar obligations recur in the disciplinary code of the Buddhists and other mendicant Orders.

A Brahmacārin may, if he choose, remain a student for life at his teacher's, or after the teacher's death with the family of the latter, which, however, according to some authorities, is not necessary³. Such a Brahmacārin for life does essentially not differ from the Bhikṣu in a more restricted sense, otherwise called Yati, Mukta, Sannyāsin, Parivrājaka, i.e. the Ārya who has entered the fourth Āśrama. The rules of conduct for a Bhikṣu or Sannyāsin⁴ have, up to minute details, served as the model for ordained monks of various sects.

We can understand that Brahmacārins for life, thirsting after true know-

¹ Huen Tshang qualifies them as "heretics" and accuses them of complotting against his life, Vol. I, 246

² See e.g. Āpastambī I, 1, Gautama II, Manu II

³ Āpast II, 9, 21, 6, 8, Gautama III, 3, 7, Manu II, 247

⁴ Āpast II, 9, 21, 9-17, Gautama III, Manu VI, 41-S6

V Aikāsanika, ekāsanika, the rule of eating at one sitting¹

VI Pattapīṇḍika, an article wanting in the N enumeration, and enjoining "eating from one vessel only"

VII. Khalupascādbhaktika, P khalupacchābhattika, the prohibition of taking a meal after it has become improper to do so, this has been interpreted as partaking of food already refused and superfluous²

VIII Āranyaka, P Āraññaka, living as a hermit in the woods

IX. Vrkṣamūlika, P rukkhāmūlika, residing at the foot of a tree

X. Ābhyāvakāsika, P abbhokāsika, living in an unsheltered place³

XI. Smāsānika, P Sosānika, living in or near a cemetery

XII Yāthāsanatarika, P yathāsanthatika, said to be "taking any seat that may be provided", evidently wrong, for *saṃstara* is what is spread, *santhata*, spread. The nuns are forbidden to observe this, a prohibition which would have no sense if the term had the meaning assigned to it. The word denotes "spreading a night-couch where one happens to be"⁴

XIII. Naisadyika, P nesajjika, enjoining a sitting posture while sleeping⁵

The articles IV and VI are absent from the N list, which on the other hand has a special Nāmatika (anga), the use of felt for clothing⁶

In theory it is meritorious, but not obligatory for all monks to observe all of the Angas. The articles VIII—XI do not apply to nuns, XI—XIII are expressly forbidden to them, Śrāmaneras and Śrāmaneris are excluded from the observance of II, for the simple reason that they are not yet members of the Order. Lay devotees are allowed to keep the rules V and VI, but none of the others.

The 12 articles of the N list are more logically arranged than the 13 Dhutangas in Pāli, it is plain that the first six are rules for all members of the Sangha, whereas the last six are intended for the Āraññakabhikkhus⁷

2 ADMISSION TO THE SANGHA NOVICES ORDINATION

Persons desiring to renounce the world and embrace the life of a monk or nun, may be admitted without any distinction of rank or caste, with a few necessary restrictions, e. g. murderers, robbers, persons with contagious diseases, slaves, soldiers and the like are excluded. The act of admission is termed Pravrajā, P Pabbajjī, properly denoting in general "leaving the world, adopting the ascetic life". The ordination properly so called is the Upasampadā, by which one becomes a monk or nun with all the privileges belonging to the Order. The Upasampadā may be conferred on all who have previously been admitted to the Pravrajā, except those who have

whereas *a-akhaṇḍana* (*apāḥandana*) = *apāṇā*. The rule is superfluous, being included in the foregoing

¹ Cp *ekāsanabhojana* Majjh N 1, 437. The form Aikāsanika occurs Asaṣ P Pāram 387

² For the scholastic interpretations we refer to CHILDERS D p 310

³ In Brahmanist works *abbhūcāśika*, Rām 1, 43, 14, Manu VI, 23. It is quite possible that the P term answers to this word, as has been suggested by OLDENBERG, *Dharma S* p 49

⁴ Cp Asaṣ P Pāram 387. Analogous words are *yātratatrasaja* and *yātrīstamatasīyam* in Brahmanistic literature

⁵ Cp Therag v. 904, 1120 — Vvu § 49 has the form Naisadyika

⁶ In CV N, 10 the wearing of *namatāṭa* is forbidden to the nuns, the use of felt for a covering is allowed V, 11, 19

⁷ Some pre-critics of the most nugatory character for this class of persons are found CV VIII, 6

articles all in all, the Chinese version of the Dharmagupta sect numbers 250, the Tibetan 253, that of the Mahāvīyutpatti 259¹

It has been ordered by the Lord that the Prātimokṣa is to be recited twice a month, on the Sabbath of the 15th (or 14th) of the halfmonth, in an assembly of at least four monks² At the end of each section the reciter asks whether any of the brethren present has transgressed one of the articles If so, the transgression must be openly confessed, if not, the recital proceeds It is usual that the monks confess their sins to each other before the ceremony Thus the disciplinary code is at the same time a formulary of confession

Quite distinct from the Prātimokṣa in origin and purport is the summary of ascetic rules known as the Dhūṭāṅgas, the complete observance of which is only possible for monks who, like the brahmanical Vānaprasthas or Vaiśkhāṇasas, lead the life of hermits in the woods The number of the Dhūṭāṅgas or Dhūṭaguṇas is 13 in the South 12 in the North³ We will treat of them severally in the order followed by the Pāli sources

I Pāmsukūlika, scil *anga*⁴, is the rule that the dress is made of rags taken from a dust or refuse heap This rule is not observed by all monks, no more than several of the following practices So far as we can judge, there always were in the Sangha cenobites and hermits, Aranyakabhikkhus, the latter more rigid and partizans of an austere mode of life, Dhūṭagunavādins or Dhutavādas, as whose head in the times of the Buddha is considered Kāśyapa, P Kassapa the Great⁵ This predilection for a solitary life is strongly expressed in many poetical songs, as if inspired by the fresh air of the woods⁶

II Traicīvarika, P *tecīvarika* is the precept enjoining the possession of no more than three robes at a time This rule is binding on all the brethren, abstraction made of occasional exceptions

III Paṇḍapātika, P *piṇḍapātika* is the rule to live on food obtained by begging from door to door Those who are strict observers of the rule make no use of food distributed by tickets (*salāka-bhatta*), of food given to the Convent (*sangha-bhatta*), of invitations for dinner The last is contrary to the custom of the Buddha and his attendants, who regularly receive and accept invitations

IV Sapadāna-cārikā, explained to mean a proceeding from door to door in due order when begging⁷

¹ Translations of the whole Pātim have been published by MINAIEF (in Russian), and by Profr RHYS DAVIDS and OLDENBERG in SBE XIII, of the part for monks by DICKSON in JRAS VIII (New s), and of the Chinese version by BEAL, Cat pp 204 ff, of the Tibetan version of the Nūhsargika section by HUTH

² MV II, 4, 2

³ HARDY E M 9, 73, 97 ff 120, BEAL Cat 256, for other references see Dharma S LXIII, note On the 28 merits of the Dhutāṅgas see Mil P 351 Synonymous or nearly so with Dhutāṅga is *sanlekha*, austere observance, Vin S 245, *sallekha*, Pugg P p 69, Majjh N I, 42, MV VII, 3

⁴ This and the following terms, when masculine, denote the persons observing the rule, Pugg P p 69, in Dharma S the masc refers to *gūṇa*

⁵ Dīpa IV, 3, V, 7, Samy N II, 156, Divy 61, 395 The sect which is said to observe more rigidly than any other the Dhutāṅgas, are the Kassapiyas, Kāśyapiyas — *Dhutavādins* in a less technical sense occurs Jāt I, 130

⁶ Marked instances are the Khaggavisāna S (Nr 3 and Nr 12 of S Nip), Therag vss 518—526 The rigorists have much in common with the Pratyekabuddhas, cp above p 61, note

⁷ The Skr form is *sāḍadānam*, an adverb (as in P) qualifying the manner of begging of an ascetic, it occurs e g Mhv I, 301, Vin S 263, but it is not expressly included in the list of Dhutāṅgas In Vis M (cp CHILDERS s 1) *sapadāna* is interpreted by *at akhandana*, and *dāna* “cutting” with *ava khandana*, but *dāna* = *khāṇḍana*,

Buddhism children were admitted, notwithstanding the tale of Rāhula's *Pabbajānā*¹ However that may be, the Śrāmaneras are no more Bhikkhus than the Brahmacārins, their model, are They are Sramanoddesas, Sramanoddesakas, P Samanuddesas, i e aspirants for the state of monk, persons destined to become monks, in a word, seminarists² One of their duties is to learn the ten Sikkāpadas³

Converts from other, heterodox sects, who desire to receive P and U, are subjected to the same formalities, and have moreover to pass a probation time, Parivāsa Only two classes of persons, viz the Jāṭilas, fire-worshippers with matted hair, and the Sākyas, received Upasampadā — there is no question of Pravrajyā — without a probation time being imposed, the former because they believed in the retribution of moral actions, and the latter because the Master wished to grant a privilege to his kinsmen⁴

The passages and testimonies adduced seem to warrant the conclusion that the real Ordination or Consecration takes place by the Upasampadā, whereas the Pravrajyā is the act by which the candidate formally declares his intention to take the vows The regulations prescribed in Scripture have been colligated in the manual for various Kammavācās, Skr Karmavācanās, ecclesiastical resolutions⁵

In a chapter of at least 10 monks — under certain circumstances only 5, as already remarked above — the candidate, after having provided himself with the requisite alms bowl and robes, and chosen his spiritual leader or tutor, Upajjhāya, is examined by the president of the chapter⁶ concerning his eventual disabilities, his name and the name of his spiritual tutor These things being ascertained, the candidate requests to be ordained, whereupon the president formally proposes to the chapter to assent to this request, twice repeated If the assembly by their silence give the consent, the president exhorts the newly ordained brother to stick to the four Necessaries⁷, and to avoid during his whole life the four capital sins All things above the Necessaries, though not absolutely forbidden, are to be considered superfluities

It would be difficult to point out a single case in Buddhist writings, sacred or profane, that the sons of Sākya kept to the four Necessaries, except the hermits As to the four capital sins, which we shall meet again under

¹ The more so because, MV I, 50, the Lord expressly forbids to confer the Pravrajyā on a boy under 15 years of age In Tibet a Śrāmanera can receive a so-called 2d consecration in his sixteenth year, in China it is not unusual that at the same age the ceremony of hair shaving is performed, the Cūḷakanta mangala in Siam is a rite performed in the 9th, 11th, 13th, or 15th year All these customs may be called "pagan accretions", KÖPPEN *Rel des B* II, 265, HARDY *E. M.* 18, GERINI, *Chūlakantamanāgā*, 2, 29

² S. Vibh II, p 139, the femin is Śrāmanoddesikā, Div 160

³ MV I, 50 The rule now followed in Ceylon (HARDY *E. M.* 23) is exactly the counterpart of the Brahmanic Upanayana

⁴ MV I, 38

⁵ The manual has been published under the title *Kammavākyam*, syn with *Karmavācanam*, by SPIEGEL, with Latin transl, partly by DICKSON with English transl in JRAS VII, 1 ff (New s) Cp BOWDEN in JRAS of 1893, HARDY *E. M.* 44, BIGANDET II, 272, MV I, 2S, 30, 76, 77 A "collection of Kammavācās" in FRANKFURTER'S Handb pp 142—150 Cp also the Kalyāṇī Inscription of A D 1476, text and transl by FAW SRI, *Ko. Ind. Ant.* XXII

⁶ Wrongly called Upajjhāya in BIGANDET l c, contrary to MV I, 76, cp 25

⁷ The 4 Nissayas (MV I, 30, 77) are *śūḍḍyāloṣapabbhājāna*, living on a pittance of begged food, *peṇḍaḍḍhāra*, rags from a dustheap, *śukkhamaḷasenāsana*, lodging at the foot of a tree, *phūḍḍamūḷḍhesajja*, cow urine as medicine The corresponding Skr terms of the Nissayas are *śūḇḇulūla*, *śūḇḇapūṭa* *śrīśarīrūla*, and *phūṭamūḷḍhesajja*, an unsuccessful attempt at rendering *phūṭamūṭa* into Skr *vyu* S 266

committed heinous crimes, eunuchs, hermaphrodites and the like¹ As to nuns there are 24 blemishes disqualifying them for the Upasampadā² For the admission of Śrāmaneras, i e young novices, or rather seminarists, is required the consent of their parents and an age of full seven years

The broad distinction between the first admission, Pravrajyā, and the Ordination, Upasampadā, is clear enough, but if we descend into the details, the matter becomes embarrassing It would seem that at the rise of Buddhism the two terms denoted nothing else but what they originally mean, the former "leaving one's home to become an ascetic", the latter "accession" to the Order It appears from Scripture that the Buddha, after converting the Five mendicant friars, further Yasas and other young men, gathered around him sixty Disciples, who in a very short space of time passed through the four stages, and asked the Master for the Pravrajyā and the Upasampadā simultaneously, whereupon the Lord received them³ After a while the Disciples who had been sent abroad to propagate the Law, returned with persons who wished to receive Pravrajyā and Upasampadā from the Master himself This circumstance led the Buddha to the consideration that it would be well if henceforth the monks were permitted to confer themselves Pravrajyā and Upasampadā on candidates He accordingly gives to the monks that permission, and adds "Let him (who has to receive P and U) first have his hair and beard cut off, let him put on the Kāsāyas, adjust his upper robe so as to cover one shoulder, bow down before the feet of the monks, and sit down squatting, then let him raise his joined hands and utter I take refuge in the Buddha, in the Law, in the Congregation" Thrice 'I ratify, o monks, the P and U with this threefold formula'⁴ Afterwards, however this regulation was cancelled, in so far as he ordered not to confer the Upasampadā, unless by a ceremony in which a formal motion (*ñatti*) is followed by three questions⁵ Even in this amended form the Upasampadā is nothing else but the solemn consecration of the Pravrajyā, as the story 1 c shows⁶ Cases of persons receiving simultaneously P and U are not rare even in the days of Asoka the lay devotee Bhanduka received P and U in the same moment, and Arhatship to boot⁷ As twenty years is the lowest age at which a man is qualified for U, it follows that a boy who has become a Śrāmanera at eight, will have to wait 12 years before he can receive Upasampadā⁸ It seems questionable whether in the beginning of the spread of

¹ The circumstances disqualifying persons for admission and ordination are minutely expounded MV I, 39—75, cp HARDY E M 17 ff Vvu § 271 Not a few of these disqualifications are merely theoretical, e g eunuchs and hermaphrodites are excluded from the Upasampadā, as if these physical disabilities were unknown at the Pravrajyā. More than absurd is the exclusion of Snakes, MV I, 63

² CV A, 17, Vvu § 271

³ Jāt Intr p 82, MV I, 6, 7 Cp above p 24

⁴ MV I, 12, An extended form of the Trisāraṇa gamana is 'Buddham saraṇaṃ gacchāmi dīpaḍāṇāṃ aṅṅaṃ, Dharmam s g virāḍāṇāṃ aṅṅaṃ, Saṅgham s g gaṇīṇāṃ aṅṅaṃ' Vvu § 267

⁵ Nāthicatutthā, MV I 28, Skr jñāpticatuttha (karmopasampanna) Vvu § 270 In border countries the conferring of U is allowed in a chapter of four monks, besides the Vinayadhara, MV I 10, 12

⁶ It results from MV I, 76 that the U need not be preceded by a formal Prav. For the Senior who confers the U asks the candidate "Are you a human being?" etc Such a question is always foolish, but excessively so if the candidate has already been examined before

⁷ Dīpaṇ XII, 62 f

⁸ CHILDERS D p 532, cp p 305, where the Sāmanera is compared with "a deacon" A deacon of 8 years is something strikingly original HARDY E M 45 has much better understood the character of a Sāmanera.

It is a peculiarity of the official habit that robes should be made out of patches imitating the ricefields of Magadha¹

Raiments occasionally used by monks and nuns are the Varṣāsāṭṭī, P Vassikasāṭṭikā, rain-cloak, and the Snātrasāṭṭaka, P Udakasāṭṭikā²

It is meritorious for the laity to provide members of the Order with clothing. A great distribution of robes to the local Sangha is held immediately after the Pravāraṇā, at the close of the rainy season. The ceremony of that distribution, elliptically called Kathina³ is common to both divisions of the Church.

The use of foot covering is, in most cases, for the monks a luxury, and in the South almost unknown. In Scripture various descriptions of possible and impossible shoes are expressly forbidden, sandals and plain slippers not absolutely so⁴. Umbrellas are a superfluous article, except in particular cases. The use of fans, and of a plain sort of chowries, is allowed⁵.

Besides the three robes the monk's equipment, Paṇṣkāra, P Paṇikkhāra, consists of an alms bowl or pot, *pātra*, P *paṭṭa*, a girdle, a razor, *vāsi*, a needle, *sūci*, and a water-strainer *paṇṣāvana*, P *paṇissāvana*⁶. The pot is sometimes carried in a kind of net or purse, *tharīkā*, perhaps only by hermits⁷. The razor serves for shaving the hair and the beard. As a rule the brethren shave one another once a fortnight.

In the North the ascetics are in the habit of carrying as a distinctive a staff, *khakkhara*. The walking stick of an ascetic is also known in the South under the name of *kattara*⁸.

According to universal Indian custom they use tooth sticks, *dantakāṣṭha*, P *dantalattha* or *dantapona*⁹.

Another article, the rosary, now so common in all Buddhist communities, does not date from very old times. Whether it was invented in India, is an open question. It is certainly not of Buddhist origin.

On the residence of the monks the sacred tradition affords much, apparently trustworthy, information. We are told that the Retreat during the rainy season the Vassavāsa or Vassa, Skr Vārsika, was instituted in imitation of the same institution with the heterodox sects¹⁰. During that time the monks are forbidden to travel, and have to arrange for themselves places to live in. There are two periods for entering upon Vassa, Vassūpanāyikā¹¹, a longer and a shorter one the former beginning at full moon of Āṣāḍha, the

¹ Ananda was the first who skilfully contrived to put together such a robe, MV VIII, 12. The number of patches varies according to the difference of sects, WASSI LIEF B 267.

² V u I c, MV VIII, 15, 20, 23, CV II, 1, X, 17.

³ Kathina, hard, denotes "raw cotton". The regulations regarding Kathina are minutely set forth MV VII, 1, and explained in *SEL* XIII, 18, XVII, 148 ff WASSI LIEF B 85, 88, *BEAL* Cat. 216. Among the N writings there is a Kathinavadāna, HODGSON, Ess. 19. The spreading out of the raw cotton is termed Kathināstarana, P Kathināṭṭhāra, Vvu § 266.

⁴ More details in MV 2—S. Cp BIGANDET II, 286, HODGSON, Ess. 19.

⁵ CV I, 22, 23. Commonly the leaves of the Tāla palm are used as fans. Hence the name of Talapoins given to the monks in Transgangeitic India, *WHEELER-BURNELL*, Glossary c v.

⁶ See CHILDEPS c v, *paṇikkhāra* and his references. Many more Paṇikkhāras are enumerated IPTS of 1887, p. 27.

⁷ CV VIII, 6, *Jat Int.* p. 55. The Māgadhi Prakṛt form is *thāyā*, Skr *sthagikā*.

⁸ Vvu § 273, Voy II, 33. For *(kattara)latthi*, *danda* see CHILDEPS c v, MV I, 6, CV IV, 1, 132.

⁹ CV X, 31, Vc, II, 55, *roc.*

¹⁰ MV III, 1.

¹¹ Skr *Vasoparajitika*, Div. 18, 489, Vvu § 266.

another head, the vow of the ordained monk to abstain from all sexual intercourse as long as his life lasts, is contrary to the theory that one may, under circumstances, leave the Order¹

The ordination of nuns is performed almost in the same manner as that of monks. She who proposes the candidate is titled the Pavattinī²

Regarding the Upasampadā ceremony in the old N Church we possess few accounts, but sufficient to show that it was, essentially, the same as in the South. In course of time some modifications have been introduced which we must leave unnoticed³

3 CLOTHING AND EQUIPMENT LODGING FOOD AND
MEDICAMENTS

The complete, distinctive dress of the monks consists of three pieces, Tricīvara, P Tīcīvara, to wit P Antaravāsaka, Uttarāsanga, and Sanghātī⁴. Another name for the habit after the colour, is Kāsāya, P Kāsāya, Kāsāva, tawny, reddish yellow. In the South the usual colour is yellow⁵, in India, at least in the Middle Ages, it was reddish.

The description of the garments, as well as the identification of sundry other names, is attended with some difficulty. The Antaravāsaka is a lower garment, something like a petticoat, hanging low down, and bound to the loins with a girdle, *lāyabandhana*⁶. As synonymous is given Nivāsana, but the description of this garment by Huen Tshang is somewhat different⁷. The Uttarāsanga is the garment covering the breast and shoulders, and reaching somewhat below the knees. Something like it is the Sankṣikā, according to Huen Tshang, but the P Sankacchikā occurs elsewhere as another garment, and not belonging to the official dress⁸. Whether the Patinivāsana, Skr Pratinivāsana, may be identified with the Uttarāsanga is a matter of doubt⁹. Sanghātī, properly meaning "a doublet" may have had a similar history as this English word. Once we meet the expression "the (two) Sanghātis folded together" to denote a third garment after Nivāsana and Pratinivāsana¹⁰. We infer that the Sanghātī, a kind of cloak, is so called because it is folded and composite¹¹.

1 HARDY E M 46

 $\approx CV \lambda, 17$

³ For Pratyāyā and Upasampadā in Tibet, see WADDELL, *Buddh of Tib* 178, 185, cp HODGSON *Ess* 139, 145.

4 MV I, 76, VIII, 13, 15, 20, 23, CV A, 17 In Skr the same, only Antaravāsaka,
Vru § 272

5 The red Kāṣṭha was not wholly unknown, see e.g. Therag v. 965

^o BIGANDET II, 274. This agrees with the "ample plaited petticoat, named 'am-tabs'" in Tibetan, WADDELL op c 201

7 According to Vol II, 3 the three robes are Sanghāṭi, Uttarasangī and Sankhaṣis, but p 69 Sanghāṭi, Sankhaṣikā and Nivāsana' The exact shape of the Nivāsana MV I, 25 cannot be determined

⁸ CV X, 17. The Sankaksikā is likewise distinguished from the three Citras, also Vyu 1 c, where also a Pratisankaksikā is mentioned.

⁹ MIV I, 25, CV VIII, 11, 12, Vvu I c

¹⁰ MV 1 c Cp the expression \hat{p}° *duḍikālan saṅghaṭṭi* \hat{p}° *ra*, a *ṛ* *ayati sma Lal V* 334. In the same work p 231 the Sanghaṭṭi is not reckoned as a Cīvra *saṅghāṭṭi*; *cā-pūtra-c'-araṇāraṇena sthira*

¹¹ LEGGE, following LITEL, defines the S as the "double or composite robe, reaching from the shoulders to the knees, and fastened round the waist" Rec p 39, note WADDELL op c 200 says the S is 'the Lower patched robe, and fastened by a girdle at the waist'

The crypt or cave *guhā* above alluded to must be a room wholly or partly excavated in a rock. The oldest crypts known are those of Barābar and Nāgārjuna in Bihār², which were given by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha to the Ājīvikas, those inveterate opponents of the Sangha.

The house where the chapter assembles for celebrating the Uposatha is called in general Uposathāgāra, in Sinhalese Poega. A famous Uposatha hall in Ceylon was the Lohapāsāda or Brazen Tower — The cells in a monastery are termed in Pāli *parivena*³. Occasionally we read of *kutis*, huts or sheds, inhabited by ascetics.

A matter of considerable interest is the institution of Parishes, *sīmā*. Like so many other regulations of the Church, the institution is due to the irrepressible Six monks⁴ who were as indefatigable evil-doers as the six Tīrthikas. After the Lord had ratified the recitation of the Prātimoksa once every half-month, the Six recited it every one before his own companions. The Master, being informed of it, ordered that the Uposatha should be attended by the whole community. Now the question arose "how far does the whole community extend?" This was settled by a prescription that it should extend as far as one place of living. Now at that time Kappina⁵ the Great dwelt near Rājagṛha. Plunged in meditation, he felt a doubt "Shall I go to the Uposatha service or shall I not go?" The Lord understanding the thoughts of Kappina, left the Grdhrakūṭa and instantly appeared before the eyes of Kappina. Having taken the seat presented to him, the Master asked Kappina, whether he had not felt the doubt just mentioned. On receiving an affirmative answer, the Lord proceeded "If ye Brahmans do not honour, regard, revere the Uposatha, who then will do it? Attend the Uposatha, Brahman! do not neglect to go." Kappina promised to do so, and the Lord appeared again on the Grdhrakūṭa⁶. Still the monks remained in uncertainty as to the question 'How far does a place of living extend?' Therefore the Buddha prescribed to mark out the boundaries of a parish, *sīmā*, in this way: first, the marks are to be mentioned, such as a mountain, a stone, a forest, a tree, a road, an ant hill, a river, a water-sheet. This being done, a competent monk has to bring forward a motion that the Sangha may decree to fix by such marks the boundary of a parish for common residence and common celebration of the Uposatha⁷. Some abuses partly occasioned by the crossness of the Six were successively remedied.

Reverting to the monasteries, we observe that the most reliable and detailed accounts about the actual state of the Saṅghārāmas in the Middle Ages, both in India and in Ceylon are due to the Chinese pilgrims. It appears

¹ CURTISGHAM Corp. Inser. I 30, Ind. Ant. XX, 361 ff.

² Hence *arīṣṭarīṣam*, in their successive cells, MV II, 8.

³ *Chalāgga*, in Skt. *Sakargha*, *Sadvargha*, Divy. 329, 396, 489, Vvu. § 281. Their names § 282 are Asvaka, Punarvasu, Nanda, Upananda, Chanda, and Udayin. In P. sources Assaji and Punarvasu (a) are directly named as belonging to the group, but it appears from MV and CV *parivena* that Nanda, Upananda, Channa and Udayin were obstinate enemies and quite worthy to be reckoned among the company. Assaji is likewise one of the Five, but in V. 1. c. (cp. § 47) Asvaka and Asvaka are different persons.

⁴ In N. writings Kappina, Kappina, Kappina, etc. See SBL. XX, 2, 198.

⁵ An ancient local acknowledgment of the precedence of Brahmans in spiritual matters and of their giving in general a good example.

⁶ According to the Mahāśāstra Śākyamuni is properly always residing on the Grdhrakūṭa and is only an illusion when men imagine they have seen him in other places. SBL. XXI 307 ff. Other Indian sects say the Ātman is *Avasthā*.

⁷ MV II § 50. On the fixing of boundaries of a parish (*sīmā sammānati*) as seen in Divy. 31, 26, Mahā. pp. 108 ff. Cp. also Manu VIII, 246.

latter one month later, both ending with the full moon of Kārttika¹ With the N Buddhists the usual period of Retreat was three months, from the first of Śrāvaṇa to the first of Kārttika²

It is not clear where in the first times of the Order the brethren, apart from the hermits, had their abodes, either during the Retreat or during the other part of the year It was not necessary that a great number of them lived in the same place, for the half-monthly recital of the Prātimokṣa did not require an assembly of more than four persons Now-a-days it is customary in Ceylon that the monks during the Retreat leave their monasteries and live in temporary huts But how to reconcile this with the following statement of Buddhaghoṣa³, "They are to look after their Vihāra, to provide food and water for themselves, to fulfil all due ceremonies, such as paying reverence to sacred shrines, etc., and to say loudly once, or twice, or thrice "I enter upon Vassa in this Vihāra for these three months?" And besides, the avowed object of the institution is to keep the monks from roaming about. Therefore we arrive at the conclusion that the tenor of the regulation comes to this during the rains the monks *must* stay in a monastery or any other fixed abode, in other seasons they *may* do so

In the beginning, as the tale goes, the monks had no fixed abodes, *ṣayanāsana*, P *senāsana* They dwelt in the woods, at the foot of a tree, on a hill, in a grotto, in a mountain cave, a cemetery, a forest, the open air, on a heap of straw Now a rich merchant of Rājagṛha wished to erect dwellings for the reverends, and the Lord Buddha gave his assent saying "I allow you, O monks, abodes (*layana*, *lena*) of five kinds⁴ Vihāras, Addhayogas⁵, towers (Prāsādas, Pāsādas), stone houses with a flat roof (Harmyas, Hammyas) and crypts" On hearing from the monks that the Lord had given his assent, the merchant had in one day finished 60 dwelling places The Lord gave thanks to him by the same stanzas as were uttered by him on accepting the gift of the Jetavana, a circumstance which points to some confusion in the tradition⁶

The very absurdity of the story is interesting, because we may gather from it that edifices as above specified were in possession of the Sangha when the MV and CV were composed

The term Vihāra does not only denote a monastery, but frequently a temple, a striking instance of which is afforded by a passage in Huen Tshang's Travels, and it is quite so, too, in Ceylon, where the word is more generally applied to the place where worship is conducted, whilst the dwelling of a monk is called a Paṇṇasālā⁷ The most unambiguous, if not the most common term for a monastery is Sanghārāma. Undoubtedly every great monastery had a Vihāra or temple annexed to it. We know this with certainty of Nālandā, and Sārnāth near Benares⁸

¹ MV III, 2, the translators (SBE. XIII, 300) add in a note "Very probably this double period stands in connection with the double period prescribed in the Brahmanas and Sūtras for most of the Vedic festivals"

² So at least in the 7th century of our era. Voy II, 492

³ Cited SBE XIII, 1 c.

⁴ MV I, 30, III, 5, CV VI, 2

⁵ Explained by Buddhaghoṣa (SBE XIII, 171) by "*suvaṇṇavangageha*", i e a house of gold and tin? CHILDERS s v gives "shaped like a garuda bird", which points to a reading *suvaṇṇa-* (or *suṣaṇṇa-*) *vilāṅga* Suvaṇṇa for Suparna is not unknown to some N texts

⁶ CV VI, 9, MV I, 30, III, 5

⁷ Voy II, 221, HARDY E M 129, description of a Vihāra, 200

⁸ Voy II, 355

the former. Further it would appear that the majority of the Buddhists clung to the so-called schismatics. How else to explain such terms as Mahāsaṅgīti and Mahāsaṅghika? The denomination of Ācāryavāda given by the orthodox to the Mahāsaṅghika or Mahāsaṅgītika doctrine, suggests the fact that the latter cause was upheld by the more learned elements of the Order.

Now the question arises "where did the Mahāsaṅgīti assemble?" We have not been able to find a distinct statement in the Sinhalese sources. According to a N. tradition the council of the Mahāsaṅghikas was held not far from the place where the first Council had assembled¹. We are informed that the party of the Great Assembly, the Mahāsaṅghikas, derived that name from both monks and laics attending the Council, and that on that occasion a new collection of the Scriptures was made. There is no question of the Ten Points or the orthodox Council at Vaiśālī².

In the Sinhalese sources the leaders of the Mahāsaṅghikas are identified with the Vṛjjan monks of Vaiśālī. Now we know that these were in possession of the Kūṭāgāra Hall of the Mahāvāna, as the chronicles affirm³. In order to obviate this difficulty, the Sinhalese have invented a tale. The King Kāla Aśoka at first favoured the heretics — exactly as the historical Aśoka did —, but afterwards he changed his mind, thanks to the interference of the gods and to a dream of his sister. By his protection the orthodox could assemble in the Mahāvāna monastery, whereas the committee had its sittings in the Vālī-kārāma. The canonical account knows nothing of an assembly in the Mahāvāna, nor is any mention made of it in the Bodhivaṃsa nor by Buddhaghosa⁴, though the latter, after saying that the second Council is called that of the 700, adds that it was attended by 1200000 monks, precisely as in the Dīpav. All available Sinhalese accounts agree in asserting that the whole collection of the Dhamma and Vinaya was revised, against the authority of the canon, which only speaks of a Vinaya Saṅgīti. In the N. tradition just alluded to there is, indeed, likewise question of a revision of the complete sacred texts, but by the Mahāsaṅghikas.

The contradictions between the canon and the Sinhalese narratives are apt to move grave doubts anent the connection between the condemning of the Ten Points and the schismatic Great Council. Let us now turn to the N. traditions⁵ about the question of the Ten Points.

When one hundred and ten years had elapsed after the Nirvāṇa some monks at Vaiśālī deviated from the Law and transgressed the rules of discipline in Ten Points⁶. In those days there lived an old Sthavira, Yaśas, in Kosala; another, Sambhūta, in Mathurā, Revata in Sahaja, Kubjaśobhita in Pāṭaliputra — all of them pupils of Ānanda⁷. Yaśas despatched messengers to summon the brethren to a gathering in Vaiśālī. When 699 monks had come together, Kubjaśobhita, perceiving by his divine eye what was going on, appeared by Rddhi in the midst of the assembly to complete the number. Sambhūta proposed in due form a resolution that the monks of Vaiśālī, who in

¹ Voy. I, 158; III, 37.

² No more than in the account found in a Chinese commentary on the Vinaya; WASSILIEF B. 225. As to the heretical theories of the Mahāsaṅghikas in matter of doctrine, see Kathāv. P. A. X; XI; XII; XIV; XV; XVI; XVIII; XXI.

³ Dīpav. V, 29, but Bodhiv. and Buddhaghosa have Vālukārāma.

⁴ Dīpav. I. c. again does not mention the Vālukārāma.

⁵ ROCKHILL op. c. 171 ff. Voy. II, 397; Tār. 290.

⁶ The expressions in Voy. I. s. remind one of *aṭṭagatasatthūsāna*, *ubbinaya*, CV. XII, 2, S.

⁷ To whom may be added from Bu-ston (Tār. 290): Sālha and Ajita; uncertain is Vṛshabhagāmin, or rather impossible, for *Ner-can* means "wealthy".

As the place of meeting of the committee was chosen the Valikārāma, a quiet and undisturbed spot.

The proceedings of the committee¹ were conducted in this manner that Revata put the questions, and Sabbakāmin delivered his authoritative replies. All the Ten Points were declared to be against the rules, and therewith the Vṛjjan monks were put in the wrong². The assembly *in pleno*, in which the Vinaya was rehearsed, is said to have consisted of 700 monks. No mention whatever is made of the Suttas and the Abhidhamma.

Before adducing other testimonies, we cannot help observing that the date assigned to the second Council is impossible, unless the heroes of the tale are purely fictitious. A century after the Parinirvāṇa, Sarvakāmin would have been at least 140 years of age; Yaśas, Kākaṇḍaka's son, if he be identical with Yaśas, one of the first converts of the Buddha, would have been $20 + 45 + 100 = 165$ years; if he be another, then he must have been more than 120 years, and so, too, the other Theras³. A chronology leading to such monstrous results condemns itself. The names of the acting Theras *may* be historical, and the account of their doings, apart from some incongruities and absurdities, *may* be founded upon a genuine tradition.

The later Siṃhalese documents pretend to know much more of the Council of Vaiśālī than the canonical Vinaya. They give in substance what is found in the sacred text, but with additions which partly are not warranted by, and partly positively conflicting, with the canonical record. Thus the Dīpav. one time fixes the number of those who attended the second Council at 700, another time at 1200000⁴. It further adds that at the time of the second Council "Aśoka, the son of Śiśunāga, was king; that prince ruled in the town of Pāṭaliputra". Elsewhere⁵ Śiśunāga is called the immediate predecessor of the Nandas, so that Śiśunāga is confounded with Kāla (v. l. Kāḷa) Aśoka. Such incongruities have nothing to surprise us in a work which is not a well-digested composition, but an uncritical collection of various older sources, chiefly memorial verses. Hence the same event is told twice with variations. The most important addition is the statement that after the second Council had been closed, another Council was held by the losing party. "The wicked Bhikkhus, the Vajjiputtakas who had been excommunicated by the Theras, gained another party; and many people, holding the wrong doctrine, ten thousand, assembled and held a council. Therefore this Dhamma-council is called the Great Council (*Mahāsaṅgīti*)."⁶ Herewith compare the statement in another work⁷ that the ten thousand wicked Bhikkhus established the wrong doctrine termed the Ācariya-vāda, i. e. the doctrine of the Ācariyas, in contradistinction to the orthodox doctrine of the Sthaviras, the Theravāda. The wrong doctrine is also called that of the Mahāsaṅgha (*Mahāsaṅghika*). Hence follows, if the tradition is to be trusted, that instead of one Council, two Councils were held, the second by the condemned party⁷, a short time after

¹ Mahāv. p. 20.

² Points 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, and 9 were in conflict with Art. 38, 37, 35, 35, 51, and 89 of Title Pacittiya; Point 10 with Art. 10 Nissaggiya; Point 4 and 5 with MV. II, 8, 3, and IX, 3, 5; the decision of Point 6 depends upon circumstances.

³ Sāḷha died before the Lord; MPS. II, 6. This fact is ignored in CV., or perhaps he had been resuscitated. Why not? We have in so serious a work as the Mil. P. a striking instance of revival in the case of the six Tīrthikas.

⁴ Dīpav. IV, 52; V, 20; 25.

⁵ Dīpav. V, 99.

⁶ Bodhiv. p. 96.

⁷ Mark that the party had not at all been condemned in matters of doctrine, but exclusively in points of discipline.

very convenient if we could eliminate the difficulty by asserting — as has been done — that the N. Buddhists confounded two kings of the same name. Such an assertion is easy enough, but to make it good would be more difficult. In the first place, we should not speak of an involuntary confusion, for the all but general view of the N. Buddhists is intimately connected with the whole system of chronology. The Sthavira Yaśas is most decidedly and deliberately represented as a contemporary of Dharma Aśoka¹. There can be no doubt about his identity with the Yaśas of the Vaiśālī Council. For he declares to Aśoka the Maurya that he is the oldest remaining of the Disciples of the Buddha, Piṇḍola Bhāradvāja alone excepted. The untrustworthiness of the tale remains the same, whether Yaśas showed his activity 100 years after Buddha's Nirvāṇa in the reign of a King Kāla Aśoka, or of another King Dharma Aśoka. Where two accounts are equally absurd, there is no reason to give a marked preference to either². Under such circumstances any decisive choice is more a matter of taste or fancy, than of science, specially as we find no support in independent, Brahmanic sources³.

The only indisputable fact resulting from a comparison of the different accounts is the existence of conflicting questions are found in the Sinhalese ancient times. We have seen that in one of them Sīsunāga appears instead of Kālāśoka. Elsewhere we come across the following prophecy by the Buddha: "I shall reach complete Parinibbāna like the setting sun. Four months after my Parinibbāna the first convocation will be held. A hundred and eighteen years later the third convocation will take place, for the sake of the propagation of the Faith. Then there will be a ruler over this Jambudīpa, a highly virtuous, glorious monarch known as Dhammāsoka⁴". This is not the only instance. In another work⁵ the date of the beginning of Duṭṭha-Gāmanī's reign is, in the prose text, 376 after the Nirvāṇa, but in the older and much more authoritative memorial verse following, it is 276.

If, in our helpless endeavours to find a firm support, we resort to the list of chief teachers succeeding the Master, we soon become aware of having caught hold of a feeble reed. The succession of teachers, Ācariyaparamparā, of the Theravāda down to the third Council, consists of the following names: Upālī, Dāsaka, Sonaka, Siggava, and Tissa Moggaliputta; some couple with Siggava

Tib. L. 309 Aśoka was born eight generations after Udayibhadra. This gives more than 200 years, and in so far corroborates the Sinhalese tradition.

¹ Divy. 381; 385; 399; 404; 406; 423.

² The preference to the Simhalese account is, from a critical standpoint, the less intelligible, because ever since TURNOUR advocated the claims of the Simhalese chronology, it has been admitted by the guess that such a blunder or wilful misstatement of Aśoka. But a system which contains such an error of more than 60 years. That error has been palliated by the guess that such an error has sprung up after the period of Aśoka. But a system which contains such an error of more than 60 years.

³ For a comparative treatment of the Simhalese and the Jaina chronology we refer to JACONT, DMG. XXXIV, 185; XXXV, 667; cp. OLDENBERG XXXIV, 751.

⁴ Dipav. I, 24—26. The translator adds in a note: "A mention of the second convocation, which was held 118 years after Buddha's death, is wanting in the MSS.; the third is said to have been held 118 years after the second." The first statement is true, but fails to explain the reason why the mention is wanting. The second statement is not true, for from Dipav. VII. 37 it appears that the Council took place 236 years after Nirvāṇa. The date 218 is that of Aśoka's Abhiṣeka; Dipav. VI, 1; Bodhiv. p. 100; S. Vibh. I. 321, where the reckoning yields 228, but evidently owing to some error in the figures.

⁵ Saddh-S. p. 47.

the Ten Points had deviated from the regulations of the Master, should be censured. The resolution being adopted, "the great assembly" proceeded to severely censure the delinquents, who repented and left their bad practices.

It does not appear to which of the various sects this version of the story belongs. This much is clear that it more or less differs from the tradition of the Mahīśāsakas and from another in the Bu-ston¹. On comparing the version preserved to us by the Chinese pilgrim with the narrative in the Pāli canon, the former makes the impression of being older, but on the whole they are much on a par. Both versions agree — and that is an important point — therein that they indirectly deny any connection between the condemnation of the Ten Points and the Council of the Mahāsāṅghikas. The expression "the great assembly", i. e. the meeting *in pleno*, positively shows that there is no question of a Mahāsaṅgīti apart from the Council on Vinaya at Vaiśālī². Such an agreement between the traditions of two totally different sects goes far to prove that the story of the Mahāsaṅgīti or Mahāsāṅghika schism as connected with the Council at Vaiśālī is an invention, perhaps suggested by such an expression as "the great assembly".

In one Tibetan source³ we read that 110 years after the Nirvāṇa Yaśas and the pupils of Ānanda, to the number of 700, assembled in Vaiśālī, and there perfected a second collection. No such collection is spoken of in the other sources⁴. The rambling and confused narrative of Tāranātha⁵ teaches us nothing.

If we wish to weigh against each other the value of the S. and that of the N. sources, we must begin with leaving out of the reckoning all unwarranted additions, either by the Sinhalese or by others. By so doing and by waiving points of secondary importance, we perceive that the difference turns about ten years, the P. canon fixing the Council at Vaiśālī at 100 years after Nirvāṇa, whereas most N. traditions give 110 years. Both dates are inadmissible, and for the same reason: the impossible age of the actors. Both the P. canon and the Vinayakṣudraka, as well as Huen Tshang leave us in the dark about the king in whose reign the second Council took place. That silence has given rise to interminable controversies on the date of Buddha's death⁶. According to the chronology adopted by the Sinhalese, the king reigning 100 years after Buddha's death was a certain Kāla Aśoka, whereas the N. Buddhists almost universally represent Aśoka the Maurya as having ascended the throne a century or thereabouts after Buddha's Nirvāṇa⁷. It would be

¹ Tār. 290 f.; ROCKHILL op. c. 173. In the version of the Mahīśāsakas the date is 100 years, the name of the president being Sarvakāma. This agreement with the Pāli version is natural enough, because the Mahīśāsakas have branched off from the Orthodox sect after the schism of the Mahāsāṅghikas.

² We have seen above that Huen Tshang gives elsewhere a separate account of the Mahāsāṅghika Council.

³ Tib. L. 309.

⁴ Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 180.

⁵ Tār. 41 f.

⁶ The chief papers bearing on the chronological question are TURNOUR, Pref. to his ed. of Mahāv., and in JASB. VI, 505; LASSEN Ind. Alt. II, 53; MAX MÜLLER Anc. S. L. 263; SBE. X, pp. XXIX ff.; WESTERGAARD, Über Buddha's Todesjahr; BÜHLER in Ind. Ant. VI, 149; VII, 141; XX, 299; SENART in JA. of 1879, p. 524; of 1892, p. 482; OLDENBERG in DMG. XXXV, 474; RHYS DAVIDS Ancient Coins and Measures of Ceylon p. 57; FISCHER in Acad. of 1877, p. 145. Cp. BARTH, Rel. of India p. 107, and Bulletin des Rel. de l'Inde of 1894.

⁷ It is in the Avadāna-Śataka (BURNOUR Intr. 432) that Aśoka is said to have reigned at Pāṭaliputra 200 years after Buddha's death. We may add that according to a notice in

3. COUNCIL OF PĀṬALIPUTRA.

This Council was no general Council, but a party meeting, of the Theravādas or Vibhajjavādins, as it was held after the schism of the Mahāsāṅghikas, the men of the Mahāsaṅgīti. No wonder that it is ignored by all other sects.

The account of this party meeting, held at Pāṭaliputra 18 years after the Abhiśeka of Aśoka, is so full of glaring untruths that but few of the particulars can be accepted as historical. The story¹ runs in short as follows.

The Thera² of the Council at Vaiśālī foresaw that after 118 years there would arise a Sramaṇa, who descending from Brahma's heaven, would be born in a Brahman family. His name would be Tissa, his surname Moggaliputta. After having received ordination from the couple Siggava and Candavajji³ he would annihilate the Tīrthika doctrines⁴ and firmly establish the Faith. This would happen when Aśoka, a righteous king, would reign in Pāṭaliputra.

When *all* the 700 Theras of the second Council had attained final Nirvāṇa⁵, Tissa was born, grew up, and was taught the Brahmanic sciences, until he became a convert and was received into the Order by Siggava. His Upasampadā coincides with the third year of Candragupta's reign, i. e. somewhere between 218 and 212 B. C.

When 236 years had elapsed after the Nirvāṇa, sixty-thousand monks dwelt in the Aśokārāma. Sectarians of different descriptions, all of them wearing the Kāṣāya, ruined the Doctrine of the Jina. It was then that Tissa M. convoked a Council, attended by 1000 monks. Having destroyed the false doctrines and subdued many shameless people, he restored the true Faith, and propounded the Abhidhamma treatise Kathāvatthu. It was from him that Mahendra, the future apostle of Ceylon, learnt the 5 Nikāyas, the 7 books of Abhidhamma, and the whole Vinaya.

This tale is immediately followed by a second account, evidently taken from another source, but in the main agreeing with the former; the number of monks in the assembly has increased to sixty-thousand; a difference of no value except inasmuch as it furnishes another instance of the uncritical compilatory character of the chronicle.

We have left out all the downright absurdities of the tale, but even so pruned it betrays its dogmatical and sectarian tendency. The principal object of the whole story is to prove that the Vibhajjavādins of the Mahāvihāra are the real and original orthodox sect⁶. Such a claim could hardly remain uncontested by other divisions of the orthodox, e. g. the Mahīśāsakas, who were flourishing in Ceylon when Fa Hian visited the island. Now the question arises: have we sufficient data to pronounce a judgment in the case? Let us see.

The chronicles representing the views of the Vibhajjavādins make a broad distinction between the Theravāda with its offshoots, and the Mahāsāṅghika or Ācāryavāda schism with its subdivisions⁷. The orthodox Theravāda

¹ Dipav. V, 55—69; VI, 21 ff.; VIII, 34—59; S. Vibh. I, 294 ff.; 306—313; Mahāv. pp. 30—33; 42 ff.; Bodhiv. p. 104 ff. Buddhaghoṣa Sam. Pās. in S. Vibh. I, 294. Cp. MINAVER Recherches I, Ch. IV.

² A quite extraordinary proceeding, as according to the regulations the ordination is conferred by one person.

³ Which are wholly out of question in a Buddhist council.

⁴ Consequently Siggava and Candavajji were not among the 700. This number is canonical, but at variance with Dipav. V, 20.

⁵ S. Vibh. I, 312; Bodhiv. p. 110; Kathāv. P. A. p. 6.

⁶ Dipav. V, 39 ff.; Bodhiv. 96; Kathāv. P. A. pp. 2—5.

the name of Candavajji¹. It is well-known that Kāśyapa the Great, and not Upāli, was the head of the Order after Buddha's death, but it is admitted that Upāli was the chief of the Vinaya. Dāsaka and Sonaka are likewise designated as chiefs of the Vinaya. Therefore it is exceedingly strange that in the Council of Vaiśālī, where such important questions of discipline were treated, the chief Sonaka is conspicuous by his absence. If such a chief did exist, the great men of the committee completely ignored him. Another suspicious fact is the notice that Tissa Moggaliputta received the Upasampadā ordination in the 3d year of Candragupta's reign, i. e. 314 B. C. or somewhat earlier. He died 86 years after his ordination², i. e. at the age of 106 years. If, contrary to the expressed view of the Sinhalese chroniclers, the numbers are taken as representing the years of life of the five teachers, then the sum total will yield $5 \times 20 = 100$ less, because the Upasampadā is fixed at 20 years. The interval between the Nirvāṇa and the death of Tissa M. will then be reduced with a whole century. It is by no means impossible that a similar ambiguity in the traditional numbers lies at the bottom of the difference between the Sinhalese and the N. dates of the Nirvāṇa. The otherwise inexplicable want of agreement in regard of that date, may be accounted for on the assumption that the Buddhists of various sects were in the habit of calculating an initial date by summing up the traditional number of years allotted to the first five successive chiefs or reputed chiefs of the Vinaya³. The considerations which may have moved each sect to adopt their own date for the Nirvāṇa are concealed to us, but it would seem that in addition to dogmatical reasons the synchronism of ecclesiastical dates with events of local or national interest have influenced. Thus the Chinese have managed to throw back the initial date to ± 1000 B. C. It is possible, nay probable that the Sinhalese⁴ have acted upon the same principle. This would explain how they got their date of 543 B. C., which is proved to be false.

The conclusions we arrive at after comparing the various traditions or what is given as such, are extremely vague, and may be summarized in the following propositions. The Council on Vinaya in Vaiśālī has an historical base; it was held x years after the death of the founder of the Order, and a considerable time before the composition and first collection of the great bulk of the Scriptures. It preceded, but had no connection with the schism of the Mahāsāṅghikas. We leave undecided whether Kālāsoka be an ingenious invention of the Sthavira sect or not. For our part, we have a lurking suspicion that the name originally denoted the Maurya king in his black and sinful days, and is almost synonymous with Caṇḍāsoka and Kāmāsoka, as the monarch is called before his conversion, after which he became Dharmāsoka⁵.

¹ S. Vibh. I, 292; Dīpav. IV; V, 57.

² Dīpav. V, 94; but immediately after it we find 80 years; another instance of two conflicting statements in juxtaposition.

³ Another list of five teachers (not of Vinaya) is: Kāśyapa, Ānanda, Madhyāntika, Śānavāsa, and Upagupta: WASSILIER B. 225; Tār. 14. Again another has: Ānanda, Yaśas, Śānavāsika, wrongly identified with Yaśas, Upagupta, and Dhutika; Tib. L. 308. Cp. WASSILIER on Tār. 290. The great man in the time of Aśoka is Upagupta, of whom the Master predicts that he will fulfil the Buddha task (*Buddhakāryam*) 100 years after the Parinirvāṇa; Divy. 350; he takes Orders under Śānakavāsin; 349. his feats are described 352; 359; 363; 395; he speaks like the Buddha 428. Cp. BURNOUR Intr. 377 ff.; ROCKHILL op. c. 170.

⁴ Properly we should say: the date adopted by the monks of the Mahāvihāra. We are not acquainted with the chronological system of the monks of Abhayagiri.

⁵ Divy. 374; 381 f.; Tār. 29; cp. 39.

that either the Sinhalese Vibhajjavādins have to some extent misrepresented the proceedings, or that the N. orthodox sects have had reason to efface the memory of that event. How else to explain that the memorable figure of Tissa Moggaliputta has totally fallen into oblivion? If we believe the Sinhalese chronicles, it was "far-seeing Moggaliputta who perceived by his supernatural vision the propagation of the Faith in the future in the neighbouring countries, — sent Majjhantika and other Theras, each with four companions, for the sake of establishing the Faith in foreign countries, for the enlightenment of men"¹. Madhyāntika being recognized as a great apostle among all Buddhists², it is hard to understand how his name could have survived, whereas Tissa, who sent him out, was totally forgotten. If we cling to the view that the assembly at Pāṭaliputra was a party meeting, and not a general Council, the relative obscurity of Tissa M. becomes intelligible.

4. REIGN OF AŚOKA.

The assembly at Pāṭaliputra is stated to have taken place 18 years after the Abhiṣeka of Aśoka, a date we have no reason to distrust. This king, who in his edicts calls himself Piyadassi³, was the son of Bindusāra, and the grandson of Candragupta, the famous founder of the Maurya dynasty. His father reigned 27 or 28 years; his grandfather 24. If the notice in the Sinhalese chronicles that Aśoka had reigned four or three years before his Abhiṣeka⁴ be correct, this event must fall 4 + 27 + 24 after the accession of Candragupta. The exact date of the first Maurya ascending the throne is unknown, but it must lie somewhere between 320 and 315 B. C.⁵, so that the date of 259 B. C. assigned to the Abhiṣeka of Aśoka by LASSEN and other scholars after him must be approximately right⁶.

Aśoka is described by the Buddhists as something like a monster in his youth, as an exemplary ruler after his conversion to Buddhism, and as a dotard in his old age. Their testimony is not corroborated, nor directly contradicted by his numerous edicts⁷. Those invaluable documents, so precious in many respects, afford us no real insight into the monarch's character. They show to a certain extent that he was not devoid of vanity and that he was much addicted to moralizing, but at the same time he seems to have been in earnest with his endeavours to heighten the moral standard of his subjects. His inscriptions, with a few exceptions, contain nothing particularly Buddhistic; some passages must even have been distasteful to many of his coreligionists. More than once he prides himself of his kind feelings towards all sects, his protection of the Ājivikas and Nirgranthas⁸, whereas the Buddhists in their writings, sacred and profane, never lose an opportunity to blacken those hated rivals. In so far as the edicts have no sectarian character, they

¹ Dipav. VIII, 1.

² Tār. 12.

³ Piyadassi and Piyadassana also Dipav. VI, 1; 2; 14; 24; XV, 88 ff.; XVI, 5; etc.

⁴ Dipav. VI, 21; three years Mahāv. V, 34.

⁵ Cp. Justinus XV, 4.

⁶ Ind. Alt. II, 223.

⁷ Complete translations by SENART "Les inscriptions de Piyadasi", I and II; cp. "Notes d'épigraphie indienne", 5 fascicules; BÜHLER, "Beiträge zur Erklärung der Aśoka-Inschriften", DMG. XXXVII; XXXIX—XLI; XLV; "Aśoka's Felsenedicte" XLIV; "Shāh-bārgarhi- and Man-chura Version" XLIII; "Nachträge" XLVI; XLVIII; "Aśoka's Rājaka" XLVII. Cp. Ep. Ind. vol. II, 245 ff. 447 ff.

⁸ E. g. Delhi Ed. VIII, dating 27 years after his Abhiṣeka.

in course of time produced the Mahīśāsakas and the Vajjiputtakas; the latter branched off into four sections: the Dharmottarikas, Bhadrāyānikas, Saṇṇagarikas, and Sammitīyas; the former, into the Sarvāstivādins and Dharmaguptikas. Further offshoots may be passed in silence.

In this enumeration no sect of Vibhajjavādins occurs; naturally so, because the Vibhajjavādins themselves hold up the claim that their tenets and their canon are identical with those of the primitive Sthaviravāda. But if we turn to other documents, we cannot but feel some misgivings whether the claims put forward by the monks of the Mahāvihāra are wholly indisputable. According to the system of the schismatic Mahāsāṅghikas, who had not the slightest interest in being partial anent a question exclusively touching outsiders, we have to adopt a threefold primary division of the Saṅgha into Sthaviras, Mahāsāṅghikas, and Vibhajjavādins¹. The Sthaviras are subdivided into Sarvāstivādins and Vatsīputrīyas, evidently the same with the Vajjiputtakas (i. e. Vṛjiputrakas) of the chronicles. This subdivision would entirely agree with the former, were it not that the Dipav. has put the Mahīśāsakas between the Sthaviras and the Sarvāstivādins. One of the subdivisions of the Orthodox in the N., the Sarvāstivādins, consider the Mūla-sarvastivādins to be more primitive than the Vibhajjavādins, though they acknowledge the monks of Mahāvihāra, as well as those of the Abhayagiri and of the Jetavana in Ceylon, to be Sthaviras². In another source³ we read that some time after the Lord's Parinirvāṇa the Saṅgha was split up into two sects, the Sthaviras and the Mahāsāṅghikas, in the reign of Aśoka. In the third century the Sthaviras divided themselves into two sects, the Sarvāstivādins, otherwise named Hetuvādas or Vibhajjavādins, and the primitive Sthaviras, who, however, adopted the denomination of Haimavatas⁴. In a Tibetan list of comparatively late date the monks of the Mahāvihāra are entered as a distinct sect, but we may dismiss that view as erroneous, or at least as not exact⁵.

The evidence adduced, if not wholly satisfactory, is sufficient to prove, not, indeed, that the pretensions of the Vibhajjavādins were unfounded, but that they were disputable, and that, consequently, it was the interest of the sect to back their claims by some weighty arguments. Hence the pains they have taken to spread the belief that the language of their canonical writings is Māgadhi; an assertion by which they have long time imposed upon European scholars. Another fiction is the prediction of the birth of Tissa M. and his descent from heaven. A third device to prove the absolute authenticity of their canon is the assertion that the Parivāra belonged to the books rehearsed at the Council of Pāṭaliputra⁶, though we know that another section of the orthodox Sinhalese did not recognize its authenticity⁷.

A review of all the testimonies available leaves no doubt that the assembly at Pāṭaliputra was a party meeting, from which the Mahāsāṅghikas were excluded. Whether in those days all the Sthaviravādins formed one compact body and took part in the proceedings of the assembly, is a point which for want of data we must leave undecided. We only venture to observe

¹ Tār. 271. Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 182—196; MINAYEF Recherches Ch. VIII, IX. An exposition of the tenets of the various texts, viewed from the standpoint of the Vibhajjavādins or Theras of the Mahāvihāra, is found in Kathāv. P. A.

² Tār. 272.

³ See WASSILIEF B. 224—226; 230.

⁴ In Kathāv. P. A. the Hetuvādas are implicitly represented as holding opinions differing from those of the Vibhajjavādins; XV; XVI; XVII; XIX; XX; XXXIII.

⁵ BURNOUF Intr. 445; Lot. 357; WASSILIEF B. 267; cp. Tār. l. c.

⁶ This results from Dipav. VII, 43.

⁷ TURNOUR, Intr. to Mahāv. Cl.

it to the last years of Aśoka, if the Sinhalese chronological notices deserve unlimited credit. But they do not. To make good this assertion it will suffice to elect a few facts out of many. The oldest chronicle tells us that Aśoka was anointed king when he had accomplished twenty years, at which date he had a son, Mahendra, fourteen years. Before his anointment the monarch had reigned four years — others say: three. In the commencement of his reign he murdered his 100 — more accurately — 99 half-brothers; yet the same authority contradicts itself by telling us in another passage that the history of the brothers happened in the seventh year of his reign, two years before the ordination of Mahendra, which was conferred upon this prince when he was 20 years, consequently 6 years after the commencement of his father's reign¹. Another authority avers that Aśoka passed the four years before his anointment with killing his 99 brothers². Both authorities agree in fixing the conversion of the King at 7 years or in the 7th year of his reign, but a third confounds the beginning of the reign with the Abhiṣeka³. The evidence of such witnesses is for critical purposes not worth a straw, unless receiving somehow a support from another quarter. No such support is forthcoming. In the Delhi inscription, dating 27 years after Aśoka's Abhiṣeka, he prides himself of the care and benefits he bestows upon all sects, so that the Sinhalese assertions of the King dismissing sixty thousand heretics⁴ is not supported. It is not improbable that the King had already become a convert when the Delhi edict was issued, but it is manifest that he was not yet the zealot he shows himself in the inscriptions of Rūpnāth, Sahasrām, &c. Therefore these must fall between the year 27 from his anointment, and 37 of his reign, for he died after a reign of 37 years. This result is corroborated by a significant notice in the last named edicts. For the King makes known that after having been during some time an Upāsaka he has joined the Saṅgha⁵. Now it is hard to imagine how a married man can belong to the Saṅgha. It is true that, according to Buddhist notions, the king is in some respects above the law, and more than once the Master allows that his own prescriptions are infringed for the king's pleasure⁶, but we are unwilling to admit that the license was illimited.

All Buddhist traditions agree in relating that Aśoka was for some time a widower before his remarriage with Tiṣyarakṣā or Tiṣyarakṣitā⁷. According to a notice in the Mahāvamsa the Queen Asandhimittā died when Aśoka had reigned 30 years — if we take the ordinal numbers to stand for the cardinals; otherwise the reckoning will yield 29, a difference not worth speaking of.

¹ Dipav. VI, 20, f. 24; VII, 27. 31.
² Buddhaghosa, S. Vibh. I, 299.

³ Mahāv. p. 25; cp. S. Vibh. I, 300. It clearly follows from Dipav. VII, 17 that the King in the 7th year of his reign became a *āyādo sāsane*, i. e. a "pretender to the Faith," which is not the same as saying "a possessor." This is an indirect proof that his conversion occurred in a later period.

⁴ Mahāv. p. 28. It is a quite different question what we have to believe of Aśoka's cruelty against the Nirgranthas and Ajivikas at Puṇḍravardhana, as related Divy. 427. This persecution is laid in the last period of A's reign, and may, therefore, contain a deal of truth.

⁵ There cannot be the slightest doubt regarding the purport of the phrase. Any other interpretation is excluded by the fact that *Saṅgha* is pointedly opposed to *Upāsaka* in the text.

⁶ E. S. MV. III. 4.

⁷ The former form is used in Kṣemendra's Avad. K. LIX, 22; Voy. II, 156, and probably also in Mahāv. p. 134, where for the abracadabra in TURNER's text we have to read: "*Tiṣyarakṣā mahēttā thapeti vihamāsayam*", i. e. (he) raised to the dignity of Queen the ill-natured Tiṣyarakṣā. Her attempt at destroying the Bodhi tree is also described Divy. 397.

do not here concern us; we have only to take cognizance of those inscriptions in which the King speaks as a fervent Buddhist.

The first document which has to detain us is that of the Bairat rock¹. It is a missive from Aśoka to the Saṅgha, in token of the king's feelings of reverence and affection towards the Buddha, the Dharma, and the Saṅgha, and of his conviction that the word of the Lord Buddha is a gospel and authoritative. Then he proceeds to enumerate some Dharmaparyāyas, i. e. canonical texts, which according to his wish should be steadily heard (learnt) and rehearsed by the monks and nuns, as well as by the laics of both sexes.

This missive, which, of course, is posterior to the King's conversion, though no precise date can be fixed, proves most clearly that at the time of its being issued a body of canonical texts was existing. Among the titles only one can be identified with certainty, "the Lāghulovāda concerning falsehood"². "The Questions of Upatiṣya" is identical, at least as to the title, with "The Questions of Śāriputra", only known through a Chinese translation³. From the circumstance that so few titles have been identified we should draw no consequences, because the same text was frequently known by several titles⁴. It is undeniable that a title like Vinayasamuk(k)a(s)sa at any rate refers to a book belonging to the class of Vinaya. Consequently the Sutta- and the Vinaya-Piṭaka are both represented in the collection, and if a work on Abhidharma is wanting, it proves nothing against the existence of that part of the Tripiṭaka, because the King recommends a selection of sacred texts, not the whole body. Of the version in which the works enumerated were existing, we cannot say anything definite; the titles are given in Māgadhī, and it is all but certain that Aśoka had in view texts in that idiom.

The second inscription, an edict issued by Aśoka when he had become a zealot, has been discovered at several places of his dominions, in slightly differing copies⁵. All the copies of the edict are unhappily replete with difficulties of every kind. The beginning of the Rūpnāth edict may be translated as follows:

"The Devānāmpiya speaketh thus: more than two years and a half I was a lay devotee, and I did not strongly exert myself. But it is (now) more than a year (or possibly: six years) that I have entered the Saṅgha, and that I have strongly exerted myself. Those who during this period were truly gods in Jambudvīpa, are now made false"⁶. The last sentence runs slightly different in the Sahasrām copy: "And in this time who were falsely (considered) gods, they (were) men falsely deified."

The first knotty point is the date of the edict. It is impossible to refer

¹ CUNNINGHAM Corp. Inscr. Pl. XV.

² With the Ambalaṭṭhikā-Rāhulovāda-Sutta, Majjh. N. I, No. 61.

³ BEAL, Tripiṭ. p. 73.

⁴ This has been remarked by OLDENBERG, Intr. to MV. XL, where an identification of other titles is proposed. Cp. MINAYEF Recherches I, 87—91.

⁵ The three first discovered copies have been edited by BÜHLER in his paper "Three new edicts of Aśoka" Ind. Ant. 1877; second notice, 1878. The controversies to which these publications gave rise have been taken up by the same in Ind. Ant. 1893, p. 299 ff., where the papers of his antagonists are cited. The redactions found in Mysore have been published by RICE (Bangalore, 1892) and Ep. Ind. III, 134.

⁶ It may be observed that a man speaking in such a manner cannot have taken the word Devānāmpriya — a compound like Yudhiṣṭhira, and no more two words — in its etymological acceptance of "dear to the gods", a meaning which in fact nowhere occurs. Probably Aśoka attached to the compound the meaning of "harmless, pious." In later times the Jains are designated as Devānāmpriyas, which well accords with their being promoters of harmlessness, of Ahimsā, to the extreme. The transition of harmless, pious to idiot, reminds one of εἰδωλός.

his grandson Daśaratha made three grands of crypts to Ājīvika monks¹, which proves that he was at least no bigoted Buddhist. It is a well ascertained fact, too, that Puṣyamitra, who founded the Śuṅga dynasty about 180 B. C. showed no predilection for the Saṅgha; on the contrary his name has been handed down in the annals of the Buddhists as that of a persecutor of their faith.

5. PROPAGATION OF THE FAITH IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

During the lifetime of the Buddha he had made converts within the limits of Madhyadeśa and Prāgdeśa. This is, roughly speaking, the outcome of the data furnished by the sacred texts. This condition of things remained stationary until the conversion of Aśoka, which event inaugurated a period of zealous propaganda in distant countries. Considering the full agreement of all Buddhist traditions in this respect, we are convinced of the historical truth of the fact in general. As to the particulars the traditions disagree, and it cannot be denied that the stories of the different missions are interspersed with fables of the most transparent hue.

The most detailed account of the spiritual conquests of Buddhism in the days of Aśoka is the story referring to the conversion of Ceylon². That conversion is ascribed to Mahendra, the son of Aśoka and the pupil of Tissa Moggaliputta. The Buddha, just before his final extinction, had predicted that 236 years later a man, Mahendra by name, would reveal the Faith in Ceylon. Immediately after the assembly at Pāṭaliputra, which was held in that year, Mahendra undertook the glorious task of converting the island. Accompanied by four brethren, one Śrāmaṇera and one laic, he departed from Pāṭaliputra, and travelled to Vedisagiri, where he converted his mother. During his stay in that place, he got a visit from his namesake, the god Indra, who — rather superfluously — exhorted him to preach the Law to the benighted inhabitants of Ceylon. Mahendra flew with his companions through the air, like the king of swans flying in the sky, and alighted on the mountain Missaka, now Mihintale. The king of the island, Devānāmpriya Tisya, happened to be a-hunting, and had a meeting with the apostle, who improved the occasion by preaching the Hatthipada Sutta, with the result that the king became a convert, along with his attendance of forty thousand men. After performing the same miracle as before, Mahendra with his companions appeared within the precincts of the palace where the princes, princesses &c. were assembled. All of them were soon converted. Meanwhile the crowd of people, anxious to hear the missionaries, had become so numerous that the preaching had to be carried on in the Nandana Park outside the town. The success was immense. At nightfall the King offered to the distinguished guests for a lodging the royal pavilion in the Meghavana Garden. The offer was accepted, and when Devānāmpriya Tisya came the next day to visit the monks, and heard that they were well pleased with their lodgings, he dedicated to the Congregation the Meghavana, which became the site of the Tisārāma or Mahāvihāra.

The monks of the Mahāvihāra, whose annals are the source of our information, have undoubtedly painted the conversion of the island in the brightest colours, and magnified the achievements of Mahendra. Yet we feel not at liberty to denounce the whole story as a fable, the less so because the

¹ CUNNINGHAM Corp. Inscr. I, p. 103. Cp. Ind. Ant. XX, 361.
² Dipav. XII—XVII; S. Vibh. I, 318—348; Mahāv. 83—183; Saddh. S. IV.

We read farther on that Aśoka remarried 4 or 3 years afterwards. There is no reason to doubt the substantial truth of this notice, for the N. Buddhists have in the main the same tradition. Let us suppose Aśoka to have taken the vows when a widower; then the date of the edicts alluded to must lie between the years 30 and 37 of his reign, or more accurately, between 30 and 34. The date of his conversion we cannot deduce with anything like precision, owing to the ambiguity of the word *chavacchara* in the text. At any rate the date assigned to it by the Sinhalese is wrong and perhaps the result of a confusion between the monarch becoming "a pretender to the Faith"¹ and his formal conversion. It may be, too, that the date has been falsified in order to connect the conversion with the story of Mahendra's arrival in Ceylon. Indirectly the untrustworthiness of the Sinhalese statement is exemplified by the fact that Aśoka, 18 years after his anointment, was unaware of the existence of Tissa Moggaliputta, though this worthy had been the teacher of his son Mahendra!² It is barely possible that the real date of Aśoka's formal conversion is 18 years after his Abhiṣeka or 22 of his reign, the alleged date of the assembly at Pāṭaliputra. Suppose we adopt the interpretation that he had been a lay devotee "more than six years", this will carry us to the year 28 or 29 of his reign. About that period or somewhat later he lost his wife, and became a member of the Order.

On comparing these results with the opinions emitted by BÜHLER³, it will appear that we agree with him in referring the edict in which Aśoka gives vent to his zealous feelings, to his last years. We believe also that the figures 256, notwithstanding all objections, are really intended as a date of the Lord's Parinirvāṇa. But we hesitate in attaching to that date any historical value. It represents the particular view of the King, or of the party he favoured; it was not the date adopted by the Buddhist community at large. If such a date had been accepted *omnium consensu*, it is unconceivable how the great majority of Buddhists could in course of time have forgotten it. A date, once adopted, right or wrong, remains of force among all sects. There is no instance of the contrary in the history of mankind⁴.

The life and deeds of Aśoka have become the subject of a series of N. Buddhist tales⁵, which in few points only show coincidences with the Sinhalese traditions. From a literary point of view those tales are highly remarkable, but the whole series has the character of an historical romance containing bits of genuine history mixed up with a great deal of fiction. It is therefore unsafe to draw inferences from such narratives. Still the traditions in various N. Buddhist works⁶ regarding the last days of Aśoka's reign, tend to impress us with the belief that the once so powerful monarch, when in his old age he suffered from mental weakness, was checked in his extravagances by his ministers and the Prince Regent, and that already before his death a current of reaction had set in against his protection of Buddhism to the detriment of other communities. It is certain that a few years after his death

¹ See above p. 119, note.

² Dipav. VII, 34—59; Mahāv. pp. 42—46; S. Vibh. I.

³ Opp. cit. For the expressions *viṅṭha*, *vaṅṭha* and *vaṅṭsa* see MINAYEY Recherches I, 78. *Vikāsa* has been found only in Jain writings; the same remark applies to *āśinara*: Delhi Ed. III (Jain Prakṛt *āṇḍara*), but that does not prove any partiality of the King to Jainism.

⁴ Other speculations on the edicts, founded upon mistranslations or preconceived notions, we must leave out of discussion.

⁵ Divy. XXVI—XXIX. Cp. Tār. 26—48, and the notices of the Chinese pilgrims *passim*.

⁶ Cp. Tib. L. 310 with Divy. and Tār. quoted above.

objected that there are chronological difficulties in the way, for the Sinhalese chronology knows no difficulties, and besides, the apostles Dhammarakkhita and Rakkhita the Great were likewise present at the consecration of the Mahāthūpa in the reign of Duṭṭha-Gāmani, something like 150 years after their mission to propagate the Faith.

The duumvirate Sona and Uttara is unknown to the N. Buddhists, unless we choose to identify Uttara with Dharmottara who founded two sects, the Tāmraśāṭṭiyas and Saṅkrāntikas; a really unique performance¹. Whether the Arhat Uttara, who is represented as living in the East² should be considered to be one and the same person is doubtful.

Such and similar accounts, to be gathered from various sources, have a value of their own, inasmuch as they reflect the state of mind of their framers and upholders; as historical documents they must be handled with the greatest precaution.

6. THE PERIOD AFTER AŚOKA DOWN TO KANIŠKA.

In the three centuries which elapsed between the death of Aśoka and the reign of Kaniška, Buddhism was steadily on the increase in the North, notwithstanding the little favour it found with the kings of the Śuṅga dynasty. It extended its peaceful conquests beyond the limits of India so far as Bactria and China, whilst in Ceylon it acquired the supremacy which it has retained up to this day amongst the Sinhalese population.

It is impossible to make out to what extent Puṣyamitra, who dethroned the last Maurya, had recourse to violent measures against the Congregation. One Buddhist tradition³ tells us that the Brahman king Puṣyamitra destroyed by fire many monasteries from Madhyadeśa to Jālandhara, and killed several learned monks. Another tale, probably older, and certainly fuller of absurdities, contains the notice that the king, wishing to abolish the Law of Buddha, destroyed the Kukkuṭārāma at Pāṭaliputra, and afterwards killed the monks in the country about Śākala⁴. A third tradition records three persecutions of the Faith between the times of Nāgārjuna and those of Asaṅga, i. e. between ± 150 A. D. and 550 A. D.⁵. If this be true, there is no question of persecutions by Puṣyamitra.

Whatever may have been the condition of Buddhism in Madhyadeśa during the second century before our era, it flourished in N. W. India, in the domain of the Bactrian Greeks. The most celebrated of the Greek rulers, the King Menander, or as the Indians called him, Milindra, P. Milinda, seems to have had Buddhist sympathies⁶, and is said to have been converted by the Sthavira Nāgasena. Our only authority for this alleged fact is the *Paripañha*, in which the date of Menander is fixed at five centuries after the *Parinirvāṇa*. This date, impossible as it is, is no argument against the substantial truth of Menander's conversion. It only proves that the book was composed or remodelled long afterwards.

As to the person of Nāgasena we know very little. In a Tibetan work

¹ WASSILIEF B. 41; 42; 113; 118; 150; 233.
² Tār. 3: 8; 291; 299.

³ Tār. 81.

⁴ Divy. 434. The Kukkuṭārāma was in ruins when Huen Tshang visited the place; he does not say that it had been destroyed by violence; Voy. II, 6.

⁵ WASSILIEF B. 203.

⁶ Strabo XI; Plutarchus Reipubl. gerendae princ. XXVIII.

same tradition was current among the N. Buddhists, with this difference that Mahendra is called a younger brother of Aśoka, and that the conversion is said to have taken place one century after the Parinirvāṇa, quite in keeping with the usual N. chronology¹. It is exactly the difference between the two versions which points to an historical base underlying the fabric of more or less wilful alterations, some of them of a markedly mythological character. The mythical traits recur in a later N. Buddhist tradition, which otherwise differs in some essentials². All agree that Buddhism was introduced into Ceylon in the days of Aśoka. This fact we consider to be historical.

The Sinhalese, as well as the N. Buddhists ascribe to Madhyāntika a signal part in the propaganda. The former say that it was he who conferred the Upasampadā on Mahendra, and that he became the apostle of Gāndhāra. In that country he subdued an enraged Nāga and delivered many from bondage. A later account knows the exact number of Nāgas converted; it is distinctly said that he made also converts amongst human beings³. The N. Buddhists, who represent Madhyāntika as a pupil of Ānanda, magnify him as the apostle of Kashmir, where he curbed the Nāga Hulunta, and preached the Law, with such an eminent success that fifty years after the Parinirvāṇa the Nāga had erected 500 monasteries⁴. The chronology is sadly disturbed. Another Thera, Majjhima, is said to have converted crowds of Yakṣas in the Himālaya⁵. He is called *sava-Himavatācariya* in a Sānchi inscription.

A third apostle was Mahādeva, who conferred the Pravrajyā on Mahendra. It was he who afterwards delivered many from bondage in the kingdom of Mysore⁶. The name of this worthy is known to the N. Buddhists also, but with them he appears in another light. He is remembered as a great sceptic, a kind of Mephistopheles, who by his destructive criticism caused dissensions in the brotherhood, much to the prejudice of the true Faith. His party was especially powerful in Kashmir⁷. The talents of this Mahādeva show a striking resemblance to the prominent qualities of the god Mahādeva, or Siva, for he had destructive tendencies, and was a master in contemplation, just like Siva, and knew the Three Pīṭakas, like Siva is Trividya. The fable of Mahādeva's pernicious activity may after all have an historical background, viz. the fact that Sivaism has been detrimental to the spread of Buddhism in Kashmir.

The Sinhalese mention several other apostles, as Rakkhita, Rakkhita the Great, Dhammarakkhita the Greek, and Dhammarakkhita the Great⁸, the similarity of whose names is apt to move suspicion, albeit we have no right to deny the existence of those persons altogether. Still more suspicious is the duumvirate Sona-Uttara, that went to Suvarṇabhūmi, the Gold-land, and there, after clearing the country from Piśācas, delivered many from bondage⁹. Whether this duumvirate be identical with the Thera Soṇottara or simply Uttara, living in the time of Duṭṭha-Gāmani, is doubtful¹⁰. It should not be

¹ Voy. I, 198; II, 140; cp. II, 423.

² Tār. 44; Tib. L. 308.

³ Dipav. VIII, 2—5; S. Vibh. I, 315; Bodhiv. 113; Mahāv. XII.

⁴ Tib. L. 290; 309; Tār. 8; 12; Voy. I, 95.

⁵ Dipav. VIII, 10; CUNNINGHAM Bhilsa Topes, Pl. XX, Nr. 1.

⁶ Dipav. VII, 25; VIII, 5; S. Vibh. I, 316.

⁷ Tār. 51; 293; WASSILIEF B. 38; 58; cp. 224.

⁸ He who ordained the Yuvarāja Tiṣya, the younger brother of Aśoka; Mahāv. p. 36; Bodhiv. 106.

⁹ Dipav. I. c. Curiously enough Sona in Prakṛt means "gold", and *uttara* is "North"; often the Gold country is said to lie in the North.

¹⁰ Dipav. XIX, 6; Mahāv. 172 ff.

foundation of the Mahāthūpa we meet the Buddha, the Law and the Saṅgha, as well as the apostles Mahādeva, Dhammarakkhita and Uttara, who 150 years before had been sent out by "far-seeing Moggaliputta".

In the reign of Abhaya Vaṭṭagāmani, the reputed founder of the Abhayagiri monastery, the canonical texts were reduced to writing. This event, falling somewhere in the last century B. C.¹ is thus described in the oldest chronicle: "Before this time, the wise monks had orally handed down the text of the Tipiṭaka and also the Aṭṭhakathā. At this time the monks, perceiving the decay of beings, assembled and in order that the Law might endure for a long time, they caused the Law to be written down in books." Nothing is said of dissensions between the monks of Mahāvihāra and those of Abhayagiri as being the motive for this decision, and as having occasioned the Dharmarucika schism, as we read in later works². The silence in the oldest chronicle might not be interpreted as a decisive proof against the trustworthiness of the later sources, were it not that the history of the quarrel is likewise absent from the memorial verses cited in one of those works and that the Sāsanavaṃsa³ gives another account. However that may be, the only question which has now to detain us, is whether it be true that the sacred lore was for the first time reduced to writing in the reign of Vaṭṭagāmani. Since we have no evidence or indication of the contrary, it would be unjustified to withhold our assent to a tradition which is older at all events than the Dīpavaṃsa. The enumeration of Dharmaparyāyas in the rescript of Aśoka to the Saṅgha may be adduced as a proof for the existence of separate parts of the sacred lore; it affords no certain indication that those compositions were written books. Therefore we take the statements of the monks of Mahāvihāra to be not wholly unfounded. On the other hand it cannot be denied that the whole account in the younger sources shows a marked tendency to represent the canon adopted by the Mahāvihārians as authentic against the Parivāra. Abhayagirians or Dharmarucikas, who impugned the genuineness of the Parivāra. Further it would seem that the Aṭṭhakathā stood in need of legitimization. That commentary — so the tale goes — was composed by Mahendra in the Sinhalese language⁴ and in the 5th century of our era translated by Bud-dhagoṣa. We had already occasion to remark that the translator quotes the Dīpavaṃsa by name, so that the whole of the Aṭṭhakathā cannot date from so olden times, unless the translator have taken the liberty to supply his version from various sources.

Among the successors of Vaṭṭagāmani several kings are recorded as benefactors of the Congregation. The most meritorious of all was Vasabha, who reigned at the end of the first century of our era. He constructed Stūpas, a Vihāra, an Upasatha hall, repaired dilapidated Ārāmas, held 44 times the Vaiśākha festival, was, in short, a king renowned for his pious acts⁵.

¹ Nothing more precise can be said. The interval of time between D. Gāmani and Vaṭṭagāmani's second reign is ± 74 years; this carries us to ± 40 B. C., if we reckon from Aśoka, not if we wish to follow the Sinhalese initial date. The event alluded to is fixed Saddh. S. p. 49 at 433 Nirv. B. Cp. Dipav. XX; BIGANDET II, 141; MINAYEF Recherches I, 231. — The Gāmini Abaya, mentioned Inscr. in Ceylon Nrs. 1—3, seems to be Vaṭṭagāmani Abhaya, whose son was Mahācūli Mahātissa, Dipav. XX, 22.

² Mahāv. pp. 207 ff.; Saddh. S. p. 48. The Dharmarucikas are not mentioned in Kathāv. P. A.

³ The text is adduced by MINAYEF l. c.

⁴ Mahāv. pp. 250 ff.; Saddh. S. 54 ff.

⁵ Cp. the inscription of this king in Ed. MÜLLER's Inscr. in Ceylon Nr. 7.

he is enumerated among the sixteen apostles who after the disappearance of Kāśyapa were sent out to propagate the Faith¹. According to another Tibetan account a schism arose in the time of the Sthaviras Nāgasena and Manoratha, 63 years before the collection of the sacred writings by the Sthavira Vatsīputra². The chronology is so confused that it is unsafe to deduce from such traditions any historical fact. It may be that the monk Nāga, who caused a dissension leading to the division into four sects, is intended to be identical with Nāgasena, but if so, the obscurity enveloping his person thickens instead of being removed³. Certainly the Nāgasena of the Milinda-Pañha is mentioned by Vasubandhu⁴.

Wholly apart from the literary documents, and exclusively relying on architectural and epigraphical texts, we arrive at the conclusion that the propaganda in the period from about 200 B. C. and 100 A. D. was successful. The foundation of the oldest Stūpas, as at Sānchi and Bharhut, may go back to the reign of Aśoka, the numerous donations of pious believers, as recorded in the inscriptions, bear the stamp of a somewhat later period. The production of Buddha images, so unmistakably betraying the influence of Greek art, must have begun somewhere in the same interval⁵.

The time of fruitful propaganda was also one that was ripe in dissensions and schisms. The number of sects steadily increased, and before Kaniṣka the 18 sects of old Buddhists, the sects recognised as such in the N. and the S., had assumed their definite shape. It is moreover probable that the ideas and tendencies which led to the development of Mahāyānism in the second century of our era were slowly gaining ground already before the Council in the reign of Kaniṣka.

The progress of the Faith in Ceylon continued almost undisturbed. Devā-nāmpriya Tiṣya, in whose reign Buddhism was introduced, reigned 40 years, and was succeeded by his younger brother Uttiya. Regarding the subsequent rulers there is no agreement in our sources⁶. The sum total of years which elapsed between the death of D. Tiṣya and the accession of Abhaya Duṭṭha-Gāmani is given as 96 (or 106). If we accept the statement of the chronicles that D. Tiṣya ascended the throne 236 Nirv. B it follows that Duṭṭha-Gāmani began to reign 372 (or 362) Nirv. B. Another source⁷ has 376. By applying the correction based upon the true, approximate date of Aśoka, we get for the commencement of Duṭṭha-Gāmani's reign 110 B. C. or thereabouts.

This ruler was a splendid patron of the Saṅgha. He erected Stūpas, monasteries and the tower Lohaprāsāda⁸; he is said to have built the Mahāvihāra, though the same authorities affirm the same of Tiṣya, while they repeat the building of the Lohaprāsāda twice over, in the reign of the later rulers Saddhā-Tissa and Śrī-Nāga⁹. In the crowd of celebrities present at the solemn

¹ Tib. L. 322.

² WASSILIEF on Tār. 298.

³ Tār. 53.

⁴ Not by Yaśomitra, as BURNOUF Intr. 570 meant; see S. LÉVI in CC. RR. de l'Acad. des Inscr. of 1893, p. 232.

⁵ Questions connected with the period of Greek influence and the inscriptions have been treated by SENART, Notes d'épigraphie indienne, III; BÜHLER, Ep. Ind. II, 87; II, 366; Ind. Ant. XX, 394; V. SMITH, ib. XXI, 166; JASE. of 1892, 52; WEBER, die Griechen in Indien; S. LÉVI, Le Bouddhisme et les Grecs, in Rev. Hist. Rel. XXIII, 36.

⁶ Dipav. XVII, 93 ff.; XVIII, 1—52; Mahāv. pp. 155 ff. Differently in Saddh. S. p. 47.

⁷ Saddh. S. l. c.

⁸ Dipav. XIX.

⁹ Dipav. XX, 4; 22; 36. We omit speaking of the repairs.

If this account were exact, the proceedings of the Council would have been limited to the composition of commentaries contenting everybody. This is highly improbable, and it is much more likely that somehow an agreement, a *modus vivendi*, was hit upon on the base of the principal truths unassailed by any of the 18 sects. On external and internal grounds we may draw the inference that the Council was only attended by the Śrāvakas or Hīnayānists, or at least that the opinions of the Mahāyānists, if represented at all, found no support. It is not improbable that the text of the sacred books underwent a revision, and it is not impossible that some parts of the canon were then written down for the first time, but it sounds strange that the whole of the Sūtra-Piṭaka and of the Vinaya up to that date only existed orally, whereas some books of the Abhidharma are said to have been already extant in written form. All accounts are silent on the idiom of the sacred texts approved or revised at the Third Council, but from that silence we must infer that the Chinese pilgrim had no notion of a canon that was written in another language but Sanskrit. It is an untoward circumstance that all the works of the old canon, the Tripiṭaka in the proper acceptation of the term, so far as they have been preserved, are only known through translations or Sanskritized texts.

If many points touching the Third Council remain in the dark, one fact may be asserted with confidence, to wit, that the Sinhalese branch of the Church kept apart from the Council, the authority of which is acknowledged by all N. Buddhists, the Mahāyānists not excluded. It can scarcely be matter of doubt that the subdivisions of the Sthaviravāda were represented in the assembly as well as the less orthodox sects. Adherents of the Sthavira sect occur in India long afterwards¹, but we are not sure that these Sthaviras identified their sect with the Sinhalese Vibhajyavādins, who claimed to be the pure and genuine Sthaviravādins.

The most significant trait of the Third Council is that it closed a period of old quarrels between the sects; it did not prevent the rise of new aspirations. Mahāyānism, which in an incipient state was already existing, ere-long boldly raised its head. Buddhist authors explain this fact in a semi-historical way by relating that the Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna, the founder of the Mādhyamika system, was born at the time of the Third Council, and became the greatest promoter of Mahāyānism. He was a pupil of the Brahman Rāhulabhadra, who himself was a Mahāyānist. This Brahman was much indebted to the Sage Kṛṣṇa, and still more to Gaṇeśa². This quasi-historical notice, reduced to its less allegorical expression, means that Mahāyānism is much indebted to the Bhagavad-Gītā³, and more even to Śivaism. One tradition assigns to Nāgārjuna a life of 60 years, when he died and went to the heaven Sukhāvati⁴. Another gives him 100 years, whilst a wholly fabulous tradition ascribes to him a life of more than five centuries⁵. Huen Tshang calls him one of the four lights of the world, along with Deva, Kumāralabdha and Āsvaghoṣa. Considering that the Rājataranginī represents Nāgārjuna as having

¹ E. g. in Kalinga; Voy. I, 185.
² Tār. 66; 69; 105; cp. 61; Tib. L. 310.

³ The Lotus is full of unbuddhistic notions allied with, if not directly taken from the Bhagavad-Gītā; e. g. Lot. XXV, vss. 6; 10; 20; cp. Bh. IV, 6; IX, 17; XI, 43; XII, 7. Buddha is *sama* for all beings, Lot. V; cp. Bh. IX, 29; XII, 13; Śākyamuni's far-stretching tongue, Lot. XX; cp. Bh. XI, 30. Cp. SBE. XXI, pp. XXXI and XXXIV.

⁴ Tib. L. 310. Sukhāvati is the heaven of the Buddha Amitābha. Nāgārjuna, being a Bodhisattva, could not reach Nirvāṇa, this being only reserved for Arhats and Buddhas. He is mentioned in a Jaggayapeta inser. in Arch. Surv. S. India. III, p. 57.

⁵ WASSILIEF B. 318; Tār. 73.

7. KANIṢKA. COUNCIL AT JĀLANDHARA. RISE AND GROWTH OF MAHĀYĀNISM. SCHISMS IN CEYLON.

The reign of the Indo-Scythian king Kaniṣka, or Kanēski, as the name is written on his coins, marks in more than one respect an epoch in the history of India. This conqueror of Śaka or Turuṣka race, from whom the Śaka era dates¹, extended his sway over a wide tract of country comprising Kabul, Gāndhāra, Sindh, N.W. India, Kashmir and part of Madhyadeśa. The N. Buddhists, who cherish his memory almost as much as Aśoka's, have a tradition that the mighty monarch was at first no adherent of their creed; they ascribe his conversion to the instrumentality of the reverend Sudarśana². As a matter of fact the great majority of Kaniṣka's coins shows emblems of an Iranian religion, and only comparatively few coins of his have been discovered with Buddhist symbols. We have no single indication of the probable date of his conversion, but we shall hardly go far amiss if we assume as the approximate date of the Council held under his patronage A. D. 100. The place of the assembly was, according to one authority, the monastery of Kuvana near Jālandhara; others say that the Council met in the Vihāra at Kuṇḍalavana in Kashmir³.

As to the proceedings at the Council the traditions are more or less at variance, and moreover very vague. Minute details are treated with diffuse loquacity, matters of importance are slurred over. The gist of one Tibetan record⁴ comes to this: the dissensions which had been raging in the brotherhood for upwards of a century were ended at this Third Council; the 18 sects were all of them acknowledged as preserving the genuine doctrine; the Vinaya was put into writing; likewise those parts of the Sūtras and the Abhidharma which had not yet been written down, whereas such parts as already existed in writing were expurged. Albeit at that time some Mahāyānist writings had made their appearance, the Srāvakas, i. e. the old Buddhists, did not deem it necessary or advisable to stir up an opposition against the tendencies of the rising party.

Another Tibetan source⁵ contains the notice that 500 Arhats under Pārśva, and 500 Bodhisattvas under Vasumitra, held the Third Council with the purpose to collect the canonical books. The information to be gathered from Huen Thsang⁶ is hardly more satisfactory notwithstanding its being fuller. According to his narrative, probably based upon hear-say, it was Kaniṣka himself who, anxious to make an end to the dissensions in the Church, consulted the venerable Pārśva or Pārśvika, and upon the advice of this worthy decided to convoke a Council in which the sacred books should be commented according to the opinion of all sects. The King built a monastery where the monks, to the number of 500, held an assembly under the presidency of Vasumitra. The assembly began with drawing up a commentary on the Sūtra-Piṭaka, of 100000 Ślokas; further the Vinaya-Vibhāṣā, a commentary on the Vinaya, of as many Ślokas; finally the Abhidharma-Vibhāṣā, containing the same number of Ślokas.

¹ N. Buddhist records fix Kaniṣka's accession to the throne — or his birth — at 400 years after the Parinirvāṇa; Voy. II, 172; Tib. L. 310.

² Tār. 58; Tib. L. 310; cp. Rec. 34; Voy. II, 107.

³ Tār 59; 298; Tib. L. 310.

⁴ Tār. 61.

⁵ Tib. L. 310.

⁶ Voy. II, 172—178; cp. I, 95.

Mahāyānism lays a great stress on devotion, in this respect as in many others harmonising with the current of feeling in India which led to the growing importance of *bhakti*¹. It is by that feeling of fervent devotion, combined with the preaching of active compassion that the creed has enlisted the sympathy of numerous millions of people and has become a factor in the history of mankind of much greater importance than orthodox Buddhism. It is by its more progressive spirit that it has succeeded finally to absorb all the old sects, barring the S. Buddhists.

This triumph, however, was not achieved without a struggle of some centuries. Both parties fought with weapons borrowed from the arsenal of Brahmanist dialectics, for the Hīnayānists, conservative as they were, could not but get the conviction that they had no chance unless their philosophical training equalled that of their opponents. Before sketching the character of the four philosophical schools in which the struggle for supremacy was concentrated, and enumerating the chief actors on the scene, we will look at the state of things in Ceylon.

The Church of Ceylon kept apart from the Council at Jālandhara; even the name of Kaniṣka does not occur in its annals. Thus it would seem that the separation of the two divisions of Buddhism had become a fact in the first century of our era.

After the death of Vasabha, A.D. 110, no remarkable events are recorded during a century, but in the reign of Tisya, who ascended the throne A.D. 209 or 217, we hear of new heretical doctrines proclaimed by some monks². That heresy, known by the name of Vetullavāda³ or Vitandāvāda, was soon subdued by the King, who in other respects, too, was well disposed towards the Congregation, as he proved by his bounties. It was in his reign that the Thera Deva, whom we have had occasion to mention, was living.

In the middle of the third century, during the reign of Abhaya, surnamed Meghavanna or Gotthaka, new dissensions arose between the monks of Mahāvihāra and those of Abhayagiri, which led to the Sāgalika schism. The Sāgalika schismatics declared the two Vibhaṅgas of the Vinaya to be apocryphal, and got the upperhand in the monastery of Jetavana, which was founded by the King Mahāsena A.D. 290 and finished by his son sometime after A.D. 302. Such is the gist of one record; other sources are somewhat at variance⁴. The Dipav., that ends with the death of Mahāsena A.D. 302, only intimates that the Mahāvihārians had hard times in the reign of Mahāsena. Shameless persons, foremost among whom were Dummitta — a nickname of Saṅghamitta — and the wicked Sona, misled the monarch, and taught many unlawful things, like — *horribile dictu* — the use of ivory fans, to be allowable. The younger chronicle expatiates more in detail on the

"which substituted for the agnostic idealism and simple morality of Buddha, a speculative theistic system with a mysticism of sophistic nihilism in the background." It would, perhaps, be more accurate to say that it is a pantheistic doctrine with a theistic tinge, in which the Buddha takes the place of the personified masculine *brahman* of the Vedānta.

¹ A good specimen of that devotional spirit is found in Bodhicary. Ch. II (Zapiski IV, 158—162).

² Dipav. XXII, 43; Mahāv. pp. 227; 255 ff. Cp. LASSEN, Ind. Alt. II, 1002; IV, 279 ff.

³ The chief heresy of the Vetulyakas consisted in their assertion: 1. that the Lord is a supernatural being, dwelling in the Tusita heaven; 2. that the Dharma was not preached on earth by him, but by Ananda, who was made and deputed by him for the purpose; Kathāv. P. A. 171; other tenets of theirs mentioned 168 ff.

⁴ TURNOUR Intr. Mahāv. p. 231; Dipav. XXII, 66—75. Cp. OLDENBERG IPTS. of 1882, p. 114, where the text of the Tikā on Mahāv. is given.

flourished immediately after the Turuṣka kings, we may hold that Nāgārjuna lived about the middle or in the latter half of the second century¹. If Ārya-Deva, originary from Ceylon, and represented as a younger contemporary of Nāgārjuna, be identical with the Thera Deva, living in the beginning of the 3d century², the view here proposed would find a support in a work composed at a time not very far removed from the date of Deva.

Apart from Deva being distinctly said to be a native of Ceylon, there is another circumstance which is apt to strengthen the belief that the Thera is identical with Deva, the rival of Nāgārjuna. We are told that Deva after a protracted discussion with the somewhat older Nāgārjuna, put the latter to *terminos non loqui*. Now how could the great Mahāyānist be defeated otherwise than by an adherent of the old faith, a Śrāvaka³?

The figure of Nāgārjuna, so prominent in the history of the rise of Mahāyānism, shows a double character. It is, on one side, the name of an influential person, the first eminent leader of a school imbued with Hinduism and the methods of Indian scholastic philosophy. On the other hand Nāgārjuna is simply a comprehensive name of the activity of Mahāyānism in the first phase of its onward course.

The activity of the rising party is exemplified, first of all, by a long series of new canonical books, many of them very voluminous. Not a few elements of the Mahāyānist scriptures are taken bodily from the Tripiṭaka, with such omissions and additions as deemed necessary. It cannot be said that the framers of the new canon have falsified the ancient sacred lore, nor that they have repudiated the old formulas of Buddhism, but by their interpretations and additions they have darkened the truths revealed by the Buddha. When the conservative Hīnayānists denounce their opponents as having set up another ideal of life, as having lowered the Arhats and extolled the Bodhisattvas, as being unorthodox in their Buddhology, they are, from their standpoint, perfectly right. It is true that the Mahāyānists despise the placid egoism, concealed under fine phrases, of the passionless Arhat, and find their ideal in the active compassion of the Bodhisattva for the weal of all fellow creatures. It is true that their Sākyamuni does not answer to the type as fixed by the orthodox sects.

Some charges⁴ brought against the Mahāyānists are exaggerated or debatable. If the followers of the Mahāyāna are blamed on account of their axiom *sarvam śūnyam*, they might easily retort by saying that this is the very essence of Buddhism, and that their opponents had become unfaithful to the letter and the spirit of the old Law. As to their Buddhology, it is no invention of theirs; the Hīnayānists themselves ascribe to Sākyamuni a supernatural character, and among the old sects the Mahāsāṅghikas entertained views agreeing with the Mahāyāna⁵.

¹ The lives of Nāgārjuna, Ārya-Deva and Aśvaghoṣa are said to have been translated into Chinese A. D. 387—418; WASSILIEF B. 210. Cp. WADDELL Buddh. of Tib. II.

² Dipav. XXII; Mahāv. pp. 255 ff. — Tib. L. 310; Tār. S3; Voy. I, 186, II, 432: 435. It cannot be true that Deva, or at least this Deva, was rector at Nālandā in the reign of the Gupta Candragupta. Cp. BEAL, The Age of Nāgārjuna, Ind. Ant. XV, 353.

³ Voy. I, 186. ff. The form in which the story is put seems to be a device to conceal the importance of the defeat suffered by Mahāyānism from orthodoxy.

⁴ For a fuller account see WASSILIEF B. 262 ff. Cp. ROCKHILL op. c. 196—200. The Mahāyānists distinguish in the essence of the Buddha three bodies: the Dharma-kāya, the Sambhoga-kāya, and the Nirmāṇakāya. These are the three modes in which the universal essence manifests itself; WASSILIEF B. 127; BEAL Cat. 134. Among the Hīnayānists the Sautrāntikas recognized the Dharma- and the Sambhoga-kāya.

⁵ WADDELL Buddh. of Tib. 10 characterizes Mahāyānism as a theistic doctrine

the canon. By recording their own version of the Nikāyas in a form to give it the appearance of antiquity they imposed upon the people¹. This schism it seems to have been of no consequence, for it is not made mention of in other sources².

The annals of the Mahāvihāra afford us an insight into the permanent state of rivalry between the inmates of certain monasteries; they give us no insight into the feelings of the Buddhists of the island at large. The information gathered by Huen Tshang, however scanty, is not entirely to be disregarded. He had heard that the Mahāvihāravāsins were strict Hinayānists, whereas the Abhayagirivāsins studied both the Hinayāna and the Mahāyāna³. There are indications in the record of Fa Hian that the Abhayagirivāsins were very partial to a pompous mode of worship, and this agrees so well with the ritualistic tendencies of the Mahāyāna that the reports which had reached the younger traveller do not seem to be wholly unfounded. Yet he adds that both sects belonged to the Sthaviras.

8. THE FOUR PHILOSOPHICAL SCHOOLS. MAHĀYĀNA IN THE ASCENDENCY. DECLINE OF THE CHURCH IN INDIA.

When the last named Chinese pilgrim stayed in India, the four philosophical schools of the Vaibhāṣikas, Sautrāntikas, Yogācāras, and Mādhyamikas had already reached their full development. The former two clung to the Hinayāna party; the latter two supported the tendencies of the Mahāyāna.

The Vaibhāṣikas and the Sautrāntikas may be qualified as realists⁴, acknowledging the real existence of the phenomenal world, but whilst the former acknowledge the direct perception of exterior objects, the latter hold that exterior objects merely exist as images, and thus are indirectly apprehended. The Vaibhāṣikas reject the authority of the Sūtras altogether, only acknowledging that of the Abhidharma. In their dogmatical system Śākyamuni is a common human being, who after attaining the qualified Nirvāṇa by his Buddhahood, and final Nirvāṇa by his death, passed into Nothingness. What may be called divine in the Buddha, is his intuitive knowledge of the truth without the aid of others.

The Sautrāntikas, in their turn, deny all authority to the Abhidharma, and keep to the Sūtras. Their Buddha is that of Scripture, possessed of the ten Powers (Daśabala), the four Vaiśāradhyas, the three Smṛtyupasthānas, and of all pervading compassion. They ascribe to him a Dharmakāya and a Sambhogakāya.

The Yogācāras and Mādhyamikas, the supporters of Mahāyānism, are idealists. The former deny the real existence of all except *vijñāna*, consciousness, and are therefore often designed as Vijñānavādins. The Mādhyamikas are complete nihilists⁵. Their system is the legitimate logical outcome of the principles underlying ancient Buddhism, and in so far as they are entitled to the glory of being more orthodox than the Orthodox. In their nihilism, the Buddhist counterpart, or rather adaptation of the scholastic Vedānta, of the theory of Name-and-Form, in its extreme interpretation⁶, they teach that the

¹ TURNOUR Intr. CII.

² Mahāv. XLII, 35 only contains the notice that a Thera, named Jotipāla, defeated the Vetullavādins.

³ Voy. III, 141.

⁴ WASSILIEF B. 226—286; Śāṅkara on Brahma-S. II, 2, 18 ff. Sarvad. Saṅg. 9—24; BURNOUR Intr. 447 ff.

⁵ WASSILIEF B. 288; 309; Śāṅkara l. c.; Sarvad. Saṅg. 22; 24; BURNOUR l. c.

⁶ The interpretation combated by Vijñāna Bhikṣu on Sāṅkhyā-Pravacana I, 22.

actions of Soṇa and Saṅghamitta. It was by their instigation that the Mahāvihāra was destroyed. The monastery of Abhayagiri, on the contrary, rose in splendour, much to the detriment of the Mahāvihāra, which is said to have been reconstructed in the last years of Mahāsena, but at the same time he founded the Jetavana monastery whose inhabitants, so bitterly hostile to the Mahāvihāra, formed a new schismatic sect¹. The conduct of Mahāsena is incomprehensible, and obviously misrepresented in the biassed annals of the Mahāvihāra monks, so that we cannot accept those tales but with the utmost reserve.

In the reign of Mahāsena's son Meghavanna, A. D. 309, the famous tooth relic was brought to Ceylon. Both Meghavanna and his successors reigning in the fourth cent. are described as benefactors of the Mahāvihāra. That may be true, but from the testimony of Fa Hian, who visited the island ± A. D. 410, we know that in his days the Abhayagiri monastery with its 5000 inmates and by its splendour ranked higher than the Mahāvihāra with its 3000 monks². We moreover owe to the same traveller the notice that there were in Ceylon adherents of the Mahiśāsaka sect, for he succeeded in obtaining a copy³ of their version of the *Dirghāgama*, *Saṃyuktāgama* and *Saṃyuktasaṃcaya-Piṭaka*(?). The complete silence of the Mahāvihāra annals about this semi-orthodox sect in Ceylon cannot be accidental; they must have had reason to conceal the fact; what that reason was, is difficult to guess.

It was in the reign of Mahānāma, A. D. 410—432, that Fa Hian visited Ceylon, and that Buddhaghosa came from India to the island. The wonderful achievements of this most celebrated of S. Buddhist authors, his translation of the *Aṭṭhakathā*, and his composing the comprehensive *Visuddhi-Magga*, were such that the Sinhalese monks hailed him as Maitreya in own person⁴. On having completed his work in Ceylon he returned to India or, according to others, went to Burma to propagate the Faith.

The history of the Sinhalese Church, such as we find it in the partial annals of the Mahāvihāra, is made up of donations to the Saṅgha, of embellishments of sacred buildings, of the setting up of statues and the like, now and then of the renewal of petty quarrels. The King Dharmapala, A. D. 459—477, acquired merits by his pious works, and by his suppressing the *Dharmarucika* heresy which had revived in the monastery of Odiyagiri⁵. In the following century, A. D. 545 or thereabouts, the old *Venikā* heresy found promoters among the monks of Abhayagiri, but the King Śīlādita speedily put an end to it⁶. The reign of Agratoditi in the beginning of the seventh cent. was marked by an attempt of two monks from the Jetavana monastery to stir up new dissensions by denouncing the Mahāvihāra monks as factors of

As a younger contemporary of Nāgārjuna and Deva, and their successor at the college of Nālandā, we find somewhere mentioned a certain Nāgāhvaya, otherwise named Tathāgatabhadrā¹. As Fa Hian does not speak of the college at Nālandā², though he visited the village, the story deserves no credit. It is more likely that Nāgāhvaya is synonymous with Nāgārjuna³.

The school of the Vaibhāṣikas was illustrated by the Bhadantas⁴ Dharma-trāta, Ghoṣaka, Buddhadēva, and Vasumitra. The first is said to have been the pupil of Ārya-Deva; if this be true, he must have flourished in the first half of the third cent. To him is ascribed the Mahā-Vibhāṣā. He is also the reputed compiler of the Udānavarga, and the author of a Samyuktābhidharma-sāstra⁵. Of Ghoṣaka and Buddhadēva little is known⁶. Vasumitra, flourishing in the reign of the son of Kanishka, is expressly distinguished from the older Vasumitra, the president of the Third Council, as well as from a younger namesake living in the 6th or 7th century, a disciple of Guṇamatī⁷. As pupils of Ārya-Deva are recorded Śūra and Śāntideva. If the notice refers to the two poets whose works are known, they must have lived in the third century. Their comparatively correct Sanskrit renders this very problematical.

With regard to the condition and the peculiarities of the two great parties about A. D. 400 we possess precious indications in Fa Hian's records. Speaking of Mathurā he notices, as we have seen, that the Abhidharma and the Vinaya-Piṭaka are worshipped by the professors of the Abhidharma and the Vinaya, severally⁸; the Prajñā-Pāramitā, Mañjuśrī and Avalokiteśvara by the Mahāyānists. When the traveller stayed in Pāṭaliputra one of the two monasteries of that city belonged to the Hīnayānists, the other, a very grand and beautiful building, to their rivals; the two together containing six to seven hundred monks. While residing in the Mahāyāna monastery he found a copy of the Vinaya in the Mahāsāṅghika redaction, which is "the most complete" among the versions of the 18 sects. So he was told of course by the Mahāyānists, who in many respects betray a close affinity to the Mahāsāṅghikas. Yet the Mahāyānists of the monastery studied also texts appertaining to other sects, for the pilgrim got from them a transcript of the Sarvāstivāda rules, those which were observed by the monks in China. He obtained, moreover, the Samyuktābhidharma-hṛdaya, one chapter of the Parivāṇa-Vaipulya-sūtra, and the Abhidharma of the Mahāsāṅghikas.

In the sixth century Buddhist scholastic philosophy reached its apogee. The two most illustrious names in that period are Ārya Asaṅga and Vasubandhu, two brothers, from Gāndhāra. Asaṅga, the great master of the Yogācāra, was originally an adherent of the semi-orthodox Mahīśāsakas, but became in course of time a convert to the Mahāyāna. He lived for a long time in a monastery near Oudh, and

¹ WASSILIER B. 202; cp. Tār. 83.
² Rec. St.
³ Vyu. § 177 the two names follow one another. A dubious Nāgabhōdhi in Tib. L. 310.

⁴ On the title Bhadanta see BRANOUT Intr. 567.
⁵ Tib. L. 310; Tār. 67; 297; WASSILIER B. 50; 270; Voy. II, 105; 119; Vyu. § 117; BRANOUT Intr. 566; ROCKHILL, Udānavarga, Introduction.
⁶ Tār. 4; 61; 67; WASSILIER B. 50; 256; 281; BRANOUT Intr. 567. They do not occur Vyu. I. c.
⁷ Tār. 60; 65. Cp. MAX MÜLLER, op. c. 305. note. A discussion on the various authors bearing the name of Vasumitra is found in MINAYEV'S Recherches I, 196 ff.

⁸ The S. Buddhists equally pay honour to the Sacred Books, which are literally worshipped. Upon some occasion they are put upon a kind of rude altar, near the roadside, that those who pass by may put money upon it to obtain merit; HARPOY F. M. 192.

whole of the phenomenal world is a mere illusion. Like the scholastic Vedāntins they recognize two kinds of truth, the Paramārtha and the Saṃvṛti, answering to the Pāramārthika and the Vyāvahārika of the Vedānta¹. The second kind of truth is, properly speaking, no truth at all, for it is the produce of Reason (*buddhi*), and truth lies outside the domain of Reason; Reason is Saṃvṛti. Hence, in fact, all is delusion, dream-like. There *is* no existence, there *is* no cessation of being; there *is* no birth, there *is* no Nirvāṇa; there is no difference between those who have attained Nirvāṇa and those who have not. All conditions, in fact, are like dreams².

The Mādhyamikas try to avoid the usual term Māyā, and use instead Prajñā and Upāya, which answer to the Pradhāna and the Prakṛti of the Sāṅkhyas, apart from the difference between ideal and real³.

It must be observed that morality is not jeopardized by this theoretical nihilism, for the force of illusion is irresistible, and as all distinctions are equally an illusion, the distinction of good and evil, of virtue and vice, remains unaffected⁴. The reasonable objection that if all is illusion, their idea of illusion is as non-existent as all the rest, would fail to trouble those philosophers, because, in their system, the decrees of Reason are not only fallible, but absolutely false.

The reputed founder of the Mādhyamika school is Nāgārjuna⁵, whereas his contemporary Kumāralabdha is said to be the originator of the Sautrāntika system⁶. As two other celebrated contemporaries figure Ārya-Deva and Āśvaghoṣa. The former we have already met; to the latter many works in prose and verse are ascribed. He is claimed by the Mahāyānist as one of their party⁷.

¹ Cp. the stanzas from Nāgārjuna's Mūlamadhyamaka quoted by MINAYEF Recherches I, 226. On this and other works ascribed to Nāgārjuna see WASSILIEF in Tār. 302.

² All this is forcibly expressed by Śāntideva, Bodhicary. IX, 2 and 150, 151:

Saṃvṛtiḥ paramārthaś ca satyadvayam idaṃ matam,
buddher agocaras tattvam; buddhiḥ saṃvṛtir ucyate.
Evaṃ na ca nirodho 'sti na ca bhāvo 'sti sarvadā,
ajātam aniruddhaṃ ca tasmāt sarvam idaṃ jagat.
Svapnopamās tu gatayo vicāre kadalīsamāḥ,
nirvṛtānirvṛtānām ca viśeṣo nāsti vastutaḥ.

The poet is reckoned among the Mādhyamikas WASSILIEF B. 326, but he occurs also as an authority of the Yogācāra; 314.

³ Cp. HODGSON Ess. 72; 78; 89; 104. The origin of these queer terms is not to be solved by etymology; both seem to be conundrums for *māyā*. *Prajñā* in the sense of "cunning", and *upāya* in that of "a trick" coincide with one of the meanings of *māyā*. The distinction between Prajñā and Upāya is conventional. Another explanation would be that Prajñā = Mūla-prakṛti, answers to the *énoia* of Gnosticism, "in which", to use the words of MILL in JASB. of 1835, p. 386, "νοῦς, intellect, *buddhi*, — is the first-born offspring".

⁴ In the highest truth there is, of course, no good nor evil. This is expressed by Śāntideva in the following phrases:

māyāpuruṣaḥhātādaḥ cittaḥbhāvan na pāpakam,
citta māyāsamete tu pāpapuṇyasamudbhavaḥ.

Zapiski IV, p. 208.

⁵ It is doubtful whether any of the existing works fathered upon Nāgārjuna be genuine. The Suhrd-lekha has been translated by WENZEL from Tihetan, JPTS. of 1886. Cp. BEAL, On the Suhrillekha, Ind. Ant. XVI, 169. According to Śāntideva, Bodhicary. V, 106 N. was the author of the Sūtrasamuccaya. It is proved by his testimony that the Tib. record ascribing the Sūtrasamuccaya and the Śikṣāsamuccaya to Śāntideva (WASSILIEF B. 208) is wrong.

⁶ Voy. I, 89; II, 154.

⁷ Tār. distinguishes two Āśvaghoṣas, one of them being confounded with Śūra, and bearing no less than 11 names, a suspicious coincidence with the 11 Rudras; 90; 216; 297; 300; 306; 311 ff. WASSILIEF B. 211 calls him a pupil of Parśva, which would make him somewhat older than Nāgārjuna. Cp. MAX MÜLLER, India 312. A younger namesake occurs Tār. 102.

Among the teachers in the Nālandā college in the time of Huen Tshang is mentioned Dharmapāla of Kāñci. If he be identical with the author of the Paramattha-Dīpanī, the commentary on the Therīgāthā — which is extremely doubtful —, he must have become a convert to Mahāyānism after his arrival in N. India. Tradition says that after he had been a teacher in Nālandā, he went to Suvarṇadvīpa¹.

Other celebrities at Nālandā between A. D. 630 and 640 were Śīlabhadra and the laics Jayasena² and Candragomin, whose opponent was Abhidharma-Kośa³ and the author of a commentary on Vasubandhu's Abhidharma-Kośa-Vyākhyā. Possibly he is identical with the realist Vasumitra who about the same time flourished in Kashmir⁵.

Concerning Bhavya or Bhāraviveka and Buddhapālita, who although being both Mahāyānists were inimical to one another, we must refer to the sources⁶. Ravigupta is known as an adherent of Asāṅga and as a poet⁷. It is in the sixth and the seventh cent. that Buddhist scholasticism had its palmy days. The contention between the two great parties rather tended to stimulate the literary activity of the schools than to enfeeble the authority of the Church. The old sects, indeed, were fast losing their significance⁸. They continued their separate existence, and kept up some external marks of distinction, but in dogmatics they were either Śrāvakas or Mahāyānists. If the statistics furnished by the Chinese pilgrims are not too inexact, we must conclude that the number of monks was more considerable in the seventh cent. than two hundred years before. On the whole Buddhism was still flourishing when Huen Tshang visited India. The decline dates, roughly speaking, from A. D. 750.

The latest great champion of Buddhism, Dharmakīrti, is stated by the historians to have been the contemporary of Kumārilabhaṭṭa. That can hardly be accurate. The traveller I-tsing, who stayed in India during the last quarter of the 7th century, reckons Dharmakīrti among the recent celebrities, but does not distinctly say that he was still living. On the other hand we can hardly imagine that a celebrity like Dharmakīrti would have been unknown to Huen Tshang. Hence we draw the inference that Dharmakīrti flourished between the stay of Huen Tshang in India and I-tsing's, and that he may have been alive, though not necessarily so, in the last quarter of the 7th century, which approaches the date of Kumānila¹¹.

¹ Tār. 160; Voy. I, 123; 148; 190; II, 287; 452; III, 46; 112; 119. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 310.
² Voy. I, 144; 152; III, 78. Tār. 205 confounds Harṣa of Kanauj with Śrī-Harṣa of Kashmir. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 310.
³ WASSILIEF B. 52; 207; Tār. 150; Zapiski IV, 29 ff.
⁴ Tib. L. 310; Tār. 159; Voy. II, 442; III, 46; 164; BURNOUR Intr. 566.
⁵ BURNOUR l. c. Voy. I, 94. Tār. calls him the contemporary of Amara-Siṃha, which is far from accurate. An elucidation of the Vyākhyā was written by Yaśomitra; BURNOUR op. c. 448; 512; 563; 566; 571; 574; Voy. III, 112; BURNOUR op. c. 560. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 304; 311; ROCKHILL op. c. 228.
⁶ Tār. 135 ff.; 160; WASSILIEF B. 207; ROCKHILL op. c. 228.
⁷ Tār. 146; WASSILIEF B. 207; ROCKHILL op. c. 228.
⁸ The sects mentioned by Huen Tshang in the course of his records are: Sthaviras, Sarvāstivādins, Sammitīyas, Mahīśāsakas, Kāśyapiyas, Dharmaguptas, Mahāśāṅghikas, Lokottaravādins; and in Ceylon: Mahāvihāriyas and Abhayagiriens.
⁹ Bhavabhūti's Malatī-Mādhava may be adduced as proving the esteem which Buddhist learning enjoyed in the 8th century at Ujjayini.
¹⁰ See MINAYEF Zapiski IV, 31 f. and his references.
¹¹ MAX MÜLLER op. c. 305 and 308 states that Dharmakīrti is quoted by Subandhu. That is a mistake. Subandhu in Vāsavadattā p. 255 alludes to the Buddhist work titled

afterwards in Magadha, where he died in Rājagṛha¹. His chief work is a book on Yoga².

Vasubandhu, Asaṅga's younger brother, received in his youth his lessons from Saṅghabhadra, a learned Hīnayānist in Kashmir. From Kashmir he went to Oudh, where he lived for many years. Being at first a staunch adherent of the Sarvāstivādins³, he disapproved of Asaṅga's Yogaśāstra, but afterwards he became a convert to Mahāyānism. After his conversion he is said to have been teacher in the college, of Nālandā. He died at an advanced age in Nepāl, or, as others say, in Oudh⁴. The principal work of this most celebrated of Buddhist philosophers is the Abhidharma-Kośa. He wrote besides several commentaries on Mahāyāna texts⁵.

Asaṅga and Vasubandhu were followed by a series of learned authors whose names are little less famous than those of the two great masters. The most prominent among these scholars, partly Hīnayānists, partly Mahāyānists, are Dignāga, Guṇaprabha, Sthiramati, Saṅghadāsa, Buddhadāsa, Dharmapāla, Śīlabhadra, Jayasena, Candra-Gomin, Candrakīrti, Guṇamati, Vasumitra, Yaśomitra, Bhavya, Buddhapālita, Ravigupta⁶.

Dignāga, from Kāñcī, a pupil of Asaṅga or Vasubandhu, is known as the author of a treatise on Logic, the Pramāṇa-samuccaya. Being a contemporary of Guṇaprabha, he must have lived from A. D. 520—600 or thereabouts⁷.

Guṇaprabha, to whom a hundred treatises are ascribed, was a native of Parvata or Mathurā, and proceeded from the school of Vasubandhu. He became the Guru of the King Harṣa, and numbered among his pupils Mitrāsena, who, a man of 90 years, taught Huen T'sang. In his youth a Mahāyānist, Guṇaprabha passed in riper years to the Hīnayāna⁸.

Sthiramati and Saṅghadāsa belong to a younger generation than the two preceding masters. Sthiramati, who was teacher at Nālandā when Huen T'sang visited that college, is known as the author of commentaries on the works of Vasubandhu, and of notes on the Ratnakūṭa⁹. Saṅghadāsa, a native of S. India, worked chiefly in Kashmir. Nearly contemporaneous with him was Buddhadāsa¹⁰.

¹ Voy. I, 83; 114; 118; II, 105; 269; Tib. I. 310; Tār. 104; 126; 167. He reached the age of 75 years, and is said to have been 20 years older than Vasubandhu. A pupil of the latter, Guṇaprabha, died before the accession of Harṣa, i. e. before A. D. 610. The approximate date of Asaṅga may be supposed to be A. D. 485—560. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 302—312.

² Other writings are noticed Voy. II. cc. Tār. 112.

³ His teacher, according to Huen T'sang, was Monu-ho-lita, the author of a Vibhāṣa-śāstra, Voy. I, 83, II, 105, 115. BURNOLF Intr. 567 has Manoratha; WASSILIEF B. 219 Maniratha. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 289; 302. Another teacher of Vasubandhu was Buddhamitra; WASSILIEF B. 249.

⁴ Tār. 118; Voy. II. cc. WASSILIEF B. 210; 214; 222. A Chinese biography of V., composed, they say, between A. D. 557 and 588, shows so little acquaintance with Indian customs that we disbelieve the statement of its being a translation. Cp. MAX MÜLLER, op. c. 302—312.

⁵ WASSILIEF B. 222; cp. 99; Voy. I, 115; II, 274; BURNOLF Intr. 563; 571; Comm. on Harṣacarita p. 490. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 308 f.

⁶ These and more names of teachers, not all of them Buddhists, are enumerated Vyu. § 177.

⁷ Tār. 127; 131; WASSILIEF B. 78; 206; Tib. I. 310. He was a contemporary of Kalidāsa, according to Mallinātha on Meghadūta vs. 14. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 305—308. D. is often quoted in the Nyāyabinduṭkā; cp. below p. 131, note.

⁸ Tār. 126; 146; Voy. I, 106; cp. 109; WASSILIEF B. 78. Cp. MAX MÜLLER op. c. 309.

⁹ Tār. 127; 129; 135; 137; Voy. III, 46; 164; WASSILIEF B. 78. Cp. MAX MÜLLER 305; 310, note.

¹⁰ Tār. 104; 127; 135.

Nepāl, the kings and the people were no less distinguished by their tolerance¹.

The decline of the Church, as already observed, may be dated from the middle of the eighth century. It was hastened in W. India by the Arab conquest of Sindh in A. D. 712.

9. SIMHALESE ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY CONTINUED. PARĀKRAMA- BĀHU I AND HIS SUCCESSORS. TANTRISM IN INDIA. THE BUD- DHISTS EXPELLED FIND A REFUGE IN NEPĀL.

The jealousies and quarrels between the monks of Ceylon subsided after the last outbreak of heresy in the reign of Agrabodhi. The repeated invasions of the island by the fierce Tamils certainly did much to foster the feeling of brotherhood among the monks, who in spite of all their dissensions were patriotic Simhalese and faithful sons of Buddha. More than once we hear of sacrilegious deeds and persecutions of the clergy by the enemy from Southern India, which could not but strengthen the unity of the Simhalese². When therefore Saṅghabodhi Parākramabāhu I, reigning from A. D. 1153—1184, tried to restore the unity in the Church and to bring about a perfect reconciliation of all parties, by convoking a Council at Anurādhapura A. D. 1165, he saw his endeavours crowned with complete success³.

No less zealous was Kīrti-Niśśāṅka-Malla (1187—1196). This monarch, too, boasts that he had united the three Nikāyas which had been separated for a long time; he claims credit for having restored the temples and Dagobs that were destroyed in consequence of the calamities which had befallen the island⁴. Unhappily the church had soon again to endure harsh treatment at the hands of the foreign usurper Māgha from Kalinga, who in the commencement of the thirteenth century persecuted the true Faith⁵. This unhappy state of things lasted for twenty-one years, until Vijayabāhu about A. D. 1250 restored the dilapidations caused by the ruthless enemies and reintegrated the supremacy of Buddhism⁶. His son Parākramabāhu III (1267—1301) was not only a pious monarch, but a patron of learning, and himself a Sanskrit scholar. As there were few able teachers in the island, he invited several renowned scholars, among whom Dharmakīrti, from the Dekkhan to Ceylon⁷.

The history of the Simhalese Church in the subsequent centuries is not marked by stirring events. Up to our days Buddhism has maintained itself against the encroachments of Śivaism, Islām, and Christianity. The clergy has lost much of its influence, and monasticism is steadily losing ground, but the Law of Buddha is still held high by the aristocracy and the people of old Simhalese extraction, though the popular form of religion, apart from some formulas, is extremely like Hinduism⁸.

¹ Voy. II, 407.

² How the Tamil domination made havoc in the ranks of the clergy appears e. g. from the fact that Vijayabāhu (1071—1126) sent to Rāmañña for learned monks; Mahāv. I.X, 5.

³ Mahāv. I.XX, 4—10; I.XXVIII, 5—11; BIGANDET II, 142. Cp. ED. MÜLLER Inscr. in Ceylon, p. 62 and Nr. 137; TAW SEIN KO in Ind. Ant. XXII, 17.

⁴ ED. MÜLLER op. c. Nr. 45 and p. 125. Cp. Mahāv. LXXX, 16 ff. Strange that this ruler denounces the great Parākramabāhu as an oppressor; ED. MÜLLER, op. c. p. 126.

⁵ Mahāv. LXXX, 58 ff.

⁶ Mahāv. LXXXI, 18 ff.

⁷ Mahāv. LXXXIII; LXXXV, 1—16.

⁸ Highly instructive for the state of religion in the 17th cent. is ROBERT KNOX, An

Kumārila and Śaṅkara live in the traditions of the Buddhists as the most formidable enemies to their creed, as the two great dialecticians whose activity caused the ruin of Buddhism in India¹. Albeit sober history teaches that the Faith has continued in India for more than six centuries after Śaṅkara, there is a grain of truth in those traditions, inasmuch as Buddhism gradually lost ground, became more degraded, and at last died out in the land of its birth.

Our information regarding the external history of N. Buddhism from the second to the eighth century is very fragmentary. Numerous inscriptions dating from Kaniṣka, and ranging over a period of more than two centuries show that the Faith prospered at Mathurā, though Jainism would seem to have been predominant. From other sources we gather that the Church was in a flourishing condition in Kabul, Kashmir, N. W. India². The epigraphic evidence from Kārli, Nāsik and Amarāvati proves that the Faith had many fervent devotees in W. and S. India. Some of the inscriptions dating from the time of Śrī-Pulimāvi or Puḷumāvi — the Siri-Polemios of Ptolemy —, consequently from the second century, teach us that the sanctuary and monastery of Amarāvati belonged to the Caitikas, a subdivision of the Mahāsāṅghikas; the latter possessed the shrine at Kārli, and the Bhadrāyaṇīyas a cave in Nāsik³.

Fa Hian found Buddhism very flourishing in Udyāna, Pañjāb, Mathurā, and in a satisfactory condition more eastward. He does not mention the college at Nālandā, which in the 7th century was the chief centre of Buddhist learning⁴. The great patron of the Faith in the 7th century was the celebrated Harṣa or Harṣavardhana, surnamed Śilāditya by Huen Tshang, who describes that king as a fervent Mahāyānist, but tolerant and benevolent towards all sects, the Hīnayānists excepted⁵. Now, it cannot be doubted that Harṣa had Buddhist sympathies. As we know from the Harṣacarita, his sister Rājyaśrī, widow of Grahavarman, had become a Buddhist nun⁶. Independently from other information tending to the same effect, the utterances of the Chinese traveller impress us with the conviction that in general the relations between the Buddhists and the various shades of Hinduism were peaceful; bitter enmity only raged between Hīnayānists and Mahāyānists. Instances like that of Śaśāṅka, king of Karna-Suvarṇa, who is stigmatized as hostile to the Faith, are isolated⁷.

In Kashmir, one of the old centres of Buddhist learning, the Church was still powerful in the 7th century during the reign of Durlabhavardhana, though Śivaism was increasing⁸. Instances of liberality shown by one and the same person to Buddhists and to Brahmanists were frequent. As to

Alaṅkāra, but he does not say that the author is Dharmakīrti. It is the commentator who ascribes the Alaṅkāra to Dharmakīrti. Another work the Nyāyabindu, which has been edited by DR. PETERSON, with the Tīkā, is ascribed to Dharmakīrti by K. B. PĀṆIAK in his paper "On the Authorship of the Nyāyabindu" (JBB. RAS. XIX, 47). The author of the Tīkā is a certain Dharmottara; cp. Tār. 330; WASSILIEF B. 290. Another Dharmottara is the one mentioned above p. 118.

¹ WASSILIEF B. 208; Tār. 175—201; HODGSON Ess. 12; 14; 48.

² CUNNINGHAM Arch. Surv. III, 30 ff. Rājatarāṅgiṇī I, 168; Tār. 65.

³ BURGESS Arch. Surv. of W. India, X, p. 33; 34; 36; of S. India, III, p. 26; 41; BHAGVĀNLĀL INDIRAJI, Nasik.

⁴ The story of the foundation is told Voy. I, 213; II, 42.

⁵ Harṣa was in the 26th year of his reign a Śivaite; BÜHLER, Ep. Ind. I, 71.

⁶ We know from the Harṣacarita 484 ff. that II. had a great veneration for the Buddhist teacher Divākaramitra Maitrāyaṇīya.

⁷ Voy. II, 349; 422.

⁸ Rājat. IV, 3 ff.; So.

Many emigrants from Magadha rejoined their brethren in the South, and founded colleges on a modest scale in Vijayanagara, Kalinga, and Konkan. The comparatively satisfactory condition of Buddhism in Dekkhan about that time is attested by the rich donations to the monastery at Dambal¹.

In Kashmir Buddhism was by most kings treated with great tolerance; those who were inimical to the Faith, like Kṣemagupta (930—958) and the talented but licentious Śrī-Harṣa (1088—1103) were equally ruthless in their dealings with other sects. The latter's successor rebuilt both monasteries and heathen temples². It was not before A. D. 1340, when Shāh Mir got the power in Ladak.

In Bengal the Faith counted some adherents up to the 16th century. There is no reason to doubt the truth of a notice in Tāranātha, that a Bengal prince in the middle of the 15th century rebuilt the ruined monasteries and the terrace of the Bodhi tree at Gayā. In Orissa the light of the Law blazed anew for a moment about in the middle of the 16th century under the Hindu ruler Mukunda-Deva Hariscandra until, owing to the conquest of the country by the Muslimān governor of Bengal, it was extinguished³.

The sons of Śākya, driven away from Hindustān and Bengal, sought a refuge in Nepāl. Here they found a friendly reception by their brethren in the Faith, and liberal protection by the Hindu rulers, whose tolerance extended likewise to Christians⁴.

Nepāl is a storehouse of medieval Buddhist literature, both sacred and profane; the country is studded with Stūpas and other sanctuaries of ancient date⁵; the people, so far as they are no professors of Hinduism, worship Mahāyānist Bodhisattvas and Buddhas, and keep up the old formulas of the creed; but the Dharma has undergone profound modifications, and the Saṅgha has long since passed away. Nominally there is a distinction between Bhikṣus, who are bound to practice celibacy, and Vajrācāryas, married men who devote themselves to the active ministry of Buddhism. "But no one follows the rules of the class to which he nominally belongs. All the Nepālese Buddhists are married men, who pursue the business of the world, and seldom think of the injunctions of their religion. They only read for the increase of their stipend and from a greedy desire of money"⁶.

The four philosophical systems known by the name of Svābhāvika, Aisvarika, Kārmika, and Yāmika, whose development seems to be peculiar to Nepāl, have only a slight tinge of Buddhism. They acknowledge, nominally, the Triratna; Buddha means with them "mind"; Dharma "matter"; and Saṅgha the connection of the two former in the phenomenal world. In fact the Svābhāvikas are simply Cārvākas; the Aisvarikas and Yātnikas are upholders of the Naiyāyikas and theistic Mimāṃsists; the Kārmikas and Yātnikas are of the popular Indian views concerning *daiva* and *ṣṛuṣṭāhāra*⁷. All these theories go back to remote times, but their superficial connection with the Buddhist Triad, and the curious interpretation of the meaning of Saṅgha render it probable that the systems have got their present shape in Nepāl.

¹ FLEURY Ind. Ant. X, 185.
² Rajat. IV, 188 ff. 306; VI, 171; 303; VII, 1092; 1241; VIII, 2416.
³ Tār. 236.

⁴ A noteworthy instance of tolerance was given by the Śivaite Prakāśa-Malla in A. D. 1754. See HOBSON in JASB. XVII, 2, 226.
⁵ On the medieval character of Nepālese architecture see FERGUSON Hist. Ind. Arch. 293 ff.
⁶ HOBSON Ess. 51. Cp. BHAGVATLAL in Arch. Surv. of W. India, IX, p. 97.
⁷ For particulars see HOBSON op. c. 23; 41; 55; 73; and cp. Bṛhat-Saṅghita I, 7.

The decline of Buddhism in India from the eighth century downwards nearly coincides with the growing influence of Tantrism and sorcery, which stand to each other in the relation of theory to practice. The development of Tantrism is a feature that Buddhism and Hinduism in their later phases have in common. The object of Hindu Tantrism is the acquisition of wealth, mundane enjoyments, rewards for moral actions, deliverance, by worshipping Durgā, the Sakti of Siva — Prajñā in the terminology of the Mahāyāna — through means of spells, muttered prayers, Samādhi, offerings &c.¹ Similarly the Buddhist Tantras purpose to teach the adepts how by a supernatural way to acquire desired objects, either of a material nature, as the elixir of longevity, invulnerability, invisibility, alchemy; or of a more spiritual character, as the power of evoking a Buddha or a Bodhisattva to solve a doubt, or the power of achieving in this life the union with some divinity. There is an unmistakable affinity between Tantrism on one side, and the system of Yoga and Kammaṭṭhāna on the other. Tantrism is, so to say, a popularized and, at the same time, degraded form of Yoga, because the objects are commonly of a coarser character, and the practices partly more childish, partly more revolting.

Tāranātha informs us that Tantrism existed and was transmitted in an occult manner in the period between Asaṅga and Dharmakīrti, but that after Dharmakīrti's times the Anuttara-Yoga became more and more general and influential. Substantially his statement is certainly right². He adds that during the reign of the Pāla dynasty there were many masters of magic, Mantra-Vajracāryas, who, being possessed of various Siddhis, performed the most prodigious feats.

The kings of the Pāla dynasty, whose sway over Gauḍa and the adjacent regions lasted from about A. D. 800 to 1050, are known both from the annals and their inscriptions as protectors of the Faith³. It was during that period that the monastery of Vikramaśīla was a renowned centre of Tantrist learning⁴.

The Sena kings, who followed the Pālas in the dominion over Eastern India, though belonging to a Hindu persuasion, were not hostile to the Faith. Still Buddhism declined during their reign, and more so after the invasion of the country by the Muhammedans in A. D. 1200⁵. The monasteries of Udaṇḍapura and Vikramaśīla were destroyed; the monks were killed or fled to other countries. The learned Śākyaśrī went to Orissa, and afterwards to Tibet; Ratnarakṣita to Nepāl; Buddhāmītra and others sought a refuge in S. India, whilst Saṅgama-Srījñāna with several of his followers betook themselves to Burma, Camboja, &c. And thus the Law of Buddha became extinct in Magadha⁶.

historical relation of the island Ceylon III, Ch. 6. For the present time see HARDY E. M. 309 ff.; KNIGHTON op. c. 235.

¹ Yajñeśvara in Āryavidyā-Sudhākara, p. 159. On the Tantrism of the Śakta or left-hand sects see WILSON Works I, 240 ff.

² Tār. 201.

³ Tār. 202—252; CUNNINGHAM Arch. Surv. III, 133; XI, 172—182. To this period may belong the inscription from Kōṭā, ed. by HULTZSCH in DMG. of 1884, p. 546, but the date is not certain. See further HOERNLE, The Palas of Bengal, Ind. Ant. XIV, 162, ff. and KIELHORN, Ind. Ant. XVII, 307 ff.; XXI, 253 ff. Ep. Ind. II, 370.

⁴ The monastery was situated in Magadha on the Northern bank of the Ganges. The superiors of the establishment were all of them Mantra-Vajracāryas; Tār. 257.

⁵ Yet a Buddhist stone inscription from Srāvastī is dated (Vikrama) Samvat 1276 (= A. D. 1219—1220); it has been edited by KIELHORN, Ind. Ant. XVII, 61 ff.

⁶ The sacred spot of Gayā has up to modern times remained a place of pilgrimage. On the remarkable inscription dated 1813 Nirvāna, which according to BHĀGAVATĀL INDRAJI's doubtful reckoning answers to A. D. 1176, see Ind. Ant. of 1881. — Tār. 255.

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- MV. Mahāvagga-Vinaya Piṭaka I, ed. by H. OLDENBERG. Lond. 1879.

LIST OF ABBREVIATED TITLES.

| | |
|------------------------------|---|
| Ang. N. | Anguttara-Nikāya, ed. by R. MORRIS; I—IV. Lond. 1885—1888. |
| Ann. Mus. Guimet | Annales du Musée Guimet. |
| Āpast. | Aphorisms on the Sacred Law of the Hindus, ed. by G. BÜHLER. Bombay 1868. 1871. Translat. by the same in SBE. II. |
| Arch. Surv. | Archaeological Survey, by JAS. BURGESS. |
| Avad. Kālp. | Avadāna-Kālpalātā by Kṣemendra. Ed. Bibl. Ind. Calc. |
| Avad. Śat. | Avadāna-Śataka, cent légendes (bouddhiques) traduites du sanscrit par L. FEER (Ann. Mus. Guimet XVIII. Paris 1891). |
| Aṣṭ. P. Pāram. | Aṣṭasāhasrika-Prajñā-Pāramitā, ed. Bibl. Ind. Calc. |
| BARTH Inscr. Camb. | Inscriptions sanscrites du Cambodge, par A. BARTH. Paris 1885. |
| BARTH Rel. of India | The Religions of India, by A. BARTH; authorized transl. by J. WOOD. Lond. 1882. |
| BEAL Cat. | A Catena of Buddhist Scriptures from the Chinese by SAMUEL BEAL. Lond. 1871. |
| BEAL Rom. Leg. | Romantic Legend of Sakya Buddha. From the Chinese by SAMUEL BEAL. Lond. 1875. |
| BEAL SBE. XIX | The Fo-Sho Hing-Tsan-King. A Life of Buddha by Aśvaghosha Bodhisattva, transl. from Sanskrit into Chinese by Dharma-rakṣa A. D. 420, and from Chinese into English by SAMUEL BEAL (Sacred Books of the East vol. XIX). Oxford 1883. |
| BEAL Tripiṭ. | The Buddhist Tripiṭaka as it is known in China and Japan, by SAMUEL BEAL. Lond. 1876. |
| Bhadrak. | Extracts from the Bhadrakalpāvadāna by S. D'OLDENBURG, in the Zapiski of 1894. |
| Bibl. Ind. | Bibliotheca Indica. |
| BIGANDET | The Life or Legend of Gaudama the Buddha of the Burmese, by the Right Rev. P. BIGANDET, 3d ed. Lond. 1880. |
| Bodhiy. | Mahā-Bodhi-Vaṃsa, ed. by S. A. STRONG. Lond. 1891. (Another ed. by P. SOBHITA, iss. from the Lakrivikīraṇa Press 1890). |
| Brahma-S. | Vedāntadarśana with the Commentary of Saṅkara and the Tika of Govindānanda. Ed. Bibl. Ind. Calc. 1863. |
| Buddhac. | The Buddhaḥarita of Aśvaghosha, ed. by E. B. COWELL (in Anecdota Oxoniensia). Oxford 1893. |
| Buddhav. | Buddhavaṃsa, ed. by R. MORRIS. Lond. 1882. |
| Bull. Rel. de l'Inde | Bulletin des Religions de l'Inde. |
| BURNOUF Intr. | Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme indien, par E. BURNOUF. Paris 1844 (reprint 1876). |
| BURNOUF Lot. | Le Lotus de la bonne Loi, traduit du Sanscrit par E. BURNOUF. Paris 1852. |
| Cariyā-P. | Cariyā-Piṭaka, ed. by R. MORRIS. Lond. 1882. |
| CC.RR. de l'Acad. des Inscr. | Comptes Rendus des séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles lettres. |
| CHILDERS | A Dictionary of the Pāli language by R. C. CHILDERS. Lond. 1872—1875. |
| COLEBROOKE Ess. | Essays on the Religion and Philosophy of the Hindus, by H. T. COLEBROOKE. Lond. 1858. |
| Corp. Inscr. | Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. |
| CUNNINGHAM Arch. Surv. | Archaeological Survey of India. Reports by A. CUNNINGHAM. |
| CV. | Cullavagga (Vinaya Piṭaka II); ed. by H. OLDENBERG. Lond. 1880. |
| Dharma-S. | Dharma-Saṃgraha, prepared for publication by Kenjiu Kasawara, and ed. by F. MAX MÜLLER and H. WENZEL (Analecta Oxoniensia Vol. I. Part V). Oxford 1885. |
| Dhātuk. P. | Dhātukathā Pakaraṇa and its Commentary, ed. by E. R. GOONERATNE. Lond. 1892. |

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VERLAG VON KARL J. TRÜBNER IN STRASSBURG.

Reallexikon

der

Indogermanischen Altertumskunde

Grundzüge einer

Kultur- und Völkergeschichte Alteuropas.

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Die indogermanische Altertumskunde will die Ursprünge der Civilisation der indogermanischen Völker an der Hand der Sprache und der Altertümer, sowohl der prähistorischen wie der geschichtlichen, ermitteln. Was auf diesem an Ergebnissen und Streitfragen reichen Arbeitsgebiet bis jetzt geleistet worden ist, soll das vorliegende Reallexikon der idg. Altertumskunde zusammenfassen und weiter ausbauen. Zu diesem Zwecke stellt sich das Werk auf den Boden der historisch bezeugten Kultur Alteuropas, wo die Wurzeln und der Schwerpunkt der idg. Völker liegen, löst dieselbe unter geeigneten Schlagwörtern in ihre Grundbegriffe auf und sucht bei jedem derselben zu ermitteln, ob und in wie weit die betreffenden Kulturerscheinungen ein gemeinsames Erbe der idg. Vorzeit oder einen Neuerwerb der einzelnen Völker, einen selbständigen oder von aussen entlehnten, darstellen. So kann das Reallexikon zugleich als Grundzüge einer Kultur- und Völkergeschichte Alteuropas bezeichnet werden, indem die Rekonstruktion vorgeschichtlicher Zustände nicht sowohl Selbstzweck, als Hilfsmittel zum Verständnis der geschichtlichen Verhältnisse sein soll. Im allgemeinen begnügt sich das Werk damit, das erste Auftreten einer Kulturerscheinung festzustellen und ihre weitere Geschichte den Altertumskunden der idg. Einzelvölker zu überlassen, für die das Reallexikon eine Einleitung und Ergänzung sein möchte. Ein besonderer Nachdruck ist auf die Terminologie der einzelnen Kulturbegriffe gelegt worden, da es die Absicht des Werkes ist, den kulturhistorischen Wortschatz der idg. Sprachen, was hier zum ersten Mal versucht wird, als Ganzes sachlich und übersichtlich zu ordnen, sowie sprachlich zu erklären. Dabei sind ausser den eigentlichen Kulturbegriffen auch solche Begriffe als selbständige Artikel in das Reallexikon aufgenommen worden, welche für die Kulturentwicklung, die Wanderungen, die Rassenzugehörigkeit der idg. Völker, sowie für die Urheimatsfrage, die einer erneuten Prüfung unterzogen wird, irgendwie von Bedeutung sein können.

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Grundriss der Indo-arischen Philologie und Altertumskunde. Plan des Werkes.

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